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HOW TO DO PAY EQUITY JOB COMPARISONS



THE
PAY EQUITY
COMMISSION





Pay equity, by removing gender-bias from pay practices, will contribute not just to fairer and consequently more productive workplaces, but also to the creation of a society which treats women and men equally.

Pay equity can be achieved. And it can best be achieved through the co-operation of those affected. The Pay Equity Commission will give these groups the support necessary to comply with Ontario's pay equity legislation: policy and research; information and education; and, if necessary, conciliation and appeal.



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FOREWORD

The purpose of this guide is to assist those involved in pay equity – employers, employees and unions – in ensuring that job information, evaluations and comparisons are free of gender bias.


The first chapter, *Collecting and Recording Job Information*, outlines the preliminary steps involved in the comparison process. Job information is the foundation of the pay equity process. By collecting bias-free data at this initial stage, you are laying important groundwork for pay equity action.

In the second chapter, *Understanding Job Evaluation*, the standard methods of job evaluation are described in detail. Job evaluation is a tool to determine the relative value of jobs within an organization and may be used by some organizations for pay equity job comparisons. This chapter discusses the various techniques

that have traditionally been used, and their advantages and disadvantages.

The final chapter, *Ensuring Gender Neutrality in Job Evaluation* shows how gender discrimination may become part of job evaluation – and how it can be removed. This chapter describes how to adapt traditional job evaluation systems for pay equity.

Fair job comparison is a fundamental goal in the achievement of pay equity. Establishing the real value of jobs depends on job evaluations and comparisons that are free of gender bias. It is a process that presents organizations and unions with a new challenge – and an important opportunity to make the workplace more equitable and productive.



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COLLECTING AND RECORDING JOB INFORMATION

This section is designed for two groups: for those people who are already familiar with job information but who need to know how to identify gender bias; and for those who are unfamiliar with job information and who want to ensure a bias-free approach.

Gender-neutral job information is the first step in the pay equity process. It is collected by studying jobs (job analysis) and developing an outline of job content. This outline is then used to produce a shorter written job information statement – or, in some cases, a more formal job description.

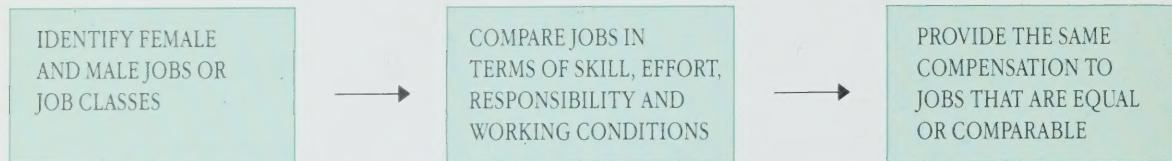
It is this written job information statement that provides the basis for job comparisons. If there is gender bias in the collection or recording of job information, the resulting comparison of jobs will be unfair.

The Pay Equity Process: An Overview

Good, bias-free job information helps employers, employees and unions better understand what the job is all about. It is a key ingredient in the pay equity process. It is important for employers and employees to work through this process thoughtfully and to agree with the results. Any gender bias in collecting and recording job information could lead to biased

results. If an employee makes a complaint that the job information does not fairly represent her or his work, the entire evaluation process could be impeded.

Collecting job information is essential in establishing pay equity. However, it is only one component. The major components of the *pay equity process* are:



Identify female and male jobs or job classes

First, job information is needed to identify the positions and jobs that should be grouped into job classes.

The definition of female and male job classes is set out in the Pay Equity Act. However, it is easy to see that the way jobs are described will greatly determine how they are perceived in terms of their similarities in duties, responsibilities and qualification requirements.

In the past, investigations of female jobs have undervalued the importance of some of the key duties (e.g., dealing with irate customers); totally omitted others (e.g. cleaning up after patients in a hospital setting); or described them in language that makes them seem less important than male jobs (e.g., secretaries answer the phone and process the mail but mail clerks manage incoming and outgoing communications).

Compare jobs in terms of skill, effort, responsibility and working conditions

The type of demands involved in both female and male jobs must be included in the job information – whether it is a skill, such as communication; whether it is effort, such as repeated lifting of light to medium weights, whether it is responsibility for clients or patients, or whether it is working conditions, with stress and steady noise and interruptions.

If such demands are not included the jobs cannot be fairly evaluated.

Provide the same compensation to jobs that are equal or comparable

Female and male jobs must both be described completely and accurately for those of equal or comparable value to be identified. In other words, gender-neutral comparisons require gender-neutral job information. Any pay discrepancies must be corrected.

Understanding Gender Bias in Job Information

Gender bias in the setting of wages is discrimination that results in salaries or wages being inappropriately influenced by gender, often unintentionally and in subtle form.

Eliminating gender bias is essential if the pay equity process is to be successful and the valuing of jobs is to be fair.

Gender bias can enter into the collection and recording of job information in a variety of ways. Consider the following:

The method chosen to collect job information

The method utilized to collect job information may not be standardized. Employees in “male” jobs may be interviewed while “female” staff may receive a questionnaire. This could result in differences in the amount of detail and emphasis.

It is important that all job information be collected in the same way. Job information for the secretarial job, for example, should be collected in the same way as information on the sales job, or the job in the warehouse. The method that is chosen therefore should be widely applicable.

Consider whether or not everyone can read and understand English or the languages to be used in the questionnaire. If the interview method is used, can everyone describe their job well? If the answer to either of these questions is “no” steps need to be taken to facilitate the process.

The objective here is to acquire job information, not to test the people's communication skills and knowledge of job analysis.

Level of detail in job information

Sometimes the “female” job is described in scant detail while the “male” job is described more fully. For example:

Secretary – types, files, answers phone.

Security guard – controls main gate, regulates flow of traffic, supervises staff and visitor vehicles, answers phone, monitors security, patrols, keeps written records.

The language of job information

In the past, the language describing male jobs has been more impressive than that used to describe female jobs. In male jobs, workers are perceived to “manage,” be “responsible for” and “control,” while those in female jobs are seen as “co-ordinating”, “caring for” and “monitoring.”

The titles of male jobs sound more important: Manager versus Unit Head; Executive Assistant versus Administrative Assistant; Sanitary Worker versus Maid; or Computer Operator versus Data Entry Clerk. The title itself may be sexist: Meter Maid, Draftsman.

Describing the job, not the person

One of the most common errors in collecting and recording job information occurs when the employee is described and not the job. This is particularly critical in determining job qualifications. The current employee may have a Master's degree, but the job in the plant only requires Grade 12. This may result in gender bias when determining the value of the job.

Most jobs involve tasks and duties whose value would range over various pay levels. For example, a job involving making budget decisions may involve photocopying. Or a job making complex repairs involves, periodically, simply moving materials. The pay associated with a job should reflect those aspects of skill, effort, responsibility and working conditions which are most typical of the job.

JOB INFORMATION CHECKLIST

In collecting and recording job information, always be alert to gender bias. Remember the following:

1. Choose a method to collect job information that does not produce bias against female jobs;
2. Be sure that interviewers and designers of questionnaires are sensitive to issues related to gender;
3. Do not overlook any aspects of female (or male) jobs;
4. Check for consistency in the level of detail describing both female and male jobs;
5. Make language neutral and equitable in questionnaires, job content and job information statements;
6. Avoid vague wording such as "may"; the phrase "other duties as required" on job description does not provide any information for evaluation purposes.
7. List all the equipment used in female and male jobs in similar detail;
8. Avoid language that exaggerates male (or female) job duties;
9. Make job titles accurate and non-sexist;
10. Record job duties for all jobs. It is the job that is described, not the person.

Collecting Job Information

Job analysis

The process of collecting job information is usually referred to as job analysis. The objective of job analysis is to identify the content of jobs in terms of tasks and responsibilities, relationships to other jobs, and the conditions under which the work is performed. It also identifies the qualifications required.

For pay equity purposes, there must be enough job content information to allow a comparison between female and male job classes in the organization, based on skill, effort, responsibility and working conditions.

Job information is usually collected in one of two ways: a self-administered questionnaire or an interview. Sometimes both methods are used to gain more detailed information on specific jobs.

There are other ways of collecting job information, such as observation (sometimes called a "desk audit"), or reviewing old job descriptions. But no matter what collection method is used, the process and the results must be free of gender bias.

Choosing an approach

The use of face-to-face interviews and/or the questionnaire technique will depend on a variety of factors.

The number of jobs involved, their location and the resources and timeframe available

The greater the number of different jobs, the more time will be necessary to collect job information. A self-administered questionnaire is easier for larger groups, and all the data can be collected at one time. However, more detailed information can be collected from interviews.

Try to involve female and male workers in developing questions about their own jobs, and educate interviewers about gender bias as discussed here. People who are uninformed about female jobs and gender bias may be inappropriate for conducting interviews or designing questionnaires.

The level of experience available in job analysis

Self-administered questionnaires require the least amount of formal training. However, the questionnaire itself must be comprehensive and unbiased.

Ready-made questionnaires are available, though the Pay Equity Office does not endorse any specific type. Questionnaires developed by others should be examined for gender bias. Many ready-made questionnaires were devised before pay equity legislation was introduced and before gender bias became a serious concern. Using a single questionnaire to collect information on all jobs will facilitate standardized information.

If using the interview method, the interviewers should possess basic interviewing skills and know when to ask additional questions. Again, a good set of interview questions is essential to find out the job's content and ensure no gender bias.

Other considerations

If a questionnaire is used, how will it be distributed? Who will compile the findings? If interviews are held, who will conduct them? How will gender bias be prevented?

Unions will want to provide input as to how job information can best be collected.

Interviewing a group of people performing the same job will save time and may provide more information.

It is important to consider all aspects of collecting job information right from the beginning. Suddenly discovering a biased interviewer or questions that have not been considered fair will jeopardize all the hard work that went into the process.

The next step is the preparation of the actual questionnaire or interview.

The questionnaire method

When you design a questionnaire, ask only enough questions to acquire information on the skill, effort, responsibility and working conditions that the job involves. Too many questions can discourage people from responding.

Make sure all the questions are clear and will invite complete information. Decide if it is best to use open or closed questions, or a combination.

An open question does not provide potential answers, but simply asks the person to describe something in their own words. For example, "What kinds of situations make your job stressful?" is an open-ended question.

To ensure that the full range of female jobs will be reported, include examples. For instance, with the question "Describe your general responsibilities," examples could include – activities with clients, patients, budgets, children, customers, and so on. It is also important to bear in mind that women may be more likely to omit facets of their jobs when they are asked to reply to open-ended questions. Including examples will help to offset this tendency. For instance, rather than asking people "What kind of equipment do you use in performing your job?" a listing of equipment could be given. A closed question, on the other hand, limits the possible responses: "What amount of time do you spend at the word processor –
20%? 40%? 60%? 80%? 100%?"

Make sure that the unbiased information needed to establish pay equity is collected.

When asking about skill, for example, remember human relations, communication and other activities found in female jobs. When asking about effort, repeated lifting of children, patients and supplies, and repeated bending deserve recognition. Responsibility for clients and customers should be considered, along with responsibility for budget and staff. Working conditions in an office can expose workers to stale air and continual low-grade noise. Working in a hospital or nursing home can expose the staff to disease, harassment and dirt, even though it is a clean environment in comparison with, for example, furnace room work.

Develop questions that probe – “how” and “why” – what the job really involves, and ask them in a way that invites truthful answers. As workers may be uncomfortable about describing their working conditions, ask them to rate them, or provide a list and request that they check off any items that apply.

Beware of biased language and questions. This is a hazard in collecting job information, as well as in recording it. A question may be leading, or produce a biased result. For example:

Please check the work aids you use:

- ▶ Typewriter
- ▶ Computer
- ▶ Power Tools (please describe)
- ▶ Floor Polisher

For a secretarial position, this form of question leaves out the word processor, the telephone, calculator, fax machine, photocopier, etc. *The question is biased.*

Leading or biased questions can skew results. Consider this example: “Describe your responsibilities for staff and budgets.” What about the responsibilities of a childcare worker for children?

The interview method

The Interviewer

To prepare interview questions, follow the same guidelines outlined earlier for the self-administered questionnaire. The interviewer should have a reasonable degree of familiarity with gender bias issues.

The interviewer and the worker should prepare for the interview. The interviewer should arrange the appointment well in advance, and should also arrange for a quiet place at the worksite to hold the interview. The interviewer should review the questions prior to the interview, and should prepare a list of job duties in advance.

In conducting the interview, the interviewer should be exact about the questions asked and should record responses precisely. The interviewer should probe to get more detailed information: for example, “How is that done?” “Tell me more about...,” etc.

Sensitivity to gender bias is as critical here as it is in preparing job questionnaires. The interviewer should be alert to cultural backgrounds; to gender discrimination in language; and to some women’s tendencies to under-report what is involved in their jobs (while at the same time not over-compensating for this possibility).

A secretary may describe one of the job’s duties as “arranging meetings,” for instance. But by asking the secretary to explain what that entails, you may discover that it requires booking meeting rooms, hiring caterers, setting up the chairs, and moving and operating audio-visual equipment. It could also involve late hours, last-minute changes to agendas, and other stressful conditions.

The Employee

The following tips should be remembered by employees when preparing for an interview.

1. Prepare yourself in advance by obtaining all the facts concerning your position.
2. Emphasize the objectives of the position and be thoroughly prepared on all factors of the position. Find out what is valued most so that you can ensure this material is fully covered.
3. Do not trust memory; prepare adequate notes. Request that the interviewer provide a complete copy of the vital information so that you may clarify any points.
4. Do not distort the description of your duties to fit with the past.
5. Do not over-emphasize facets of a position that stem from personal experience.
6. Do not consider your personal qualities and abilities in describing the position.
7. Describe your job completely. Do not over- or under-describe it.

The purpose of job analysis is to collect sufficient, relevant information so that job assessment is as accurate as possible.

However, everything you do every minute of the day does not have to be included in your job information. It is important to include all the major tasks and duties.

Often overlooked job content

These are some of the job requirements frequently overlooked or ignored:

Skill:

- ▶ operating and maintaining several different types of office and manufacturing equipment;
- ▶ manual dexterity required for giving injections, typing, graphic arts;
- ▶ writing correspondence for others, and proofreading and editing others' work;
- ▶ establishing and maintaining manual and automated filing systems, records management and disposal;
- ▶ training and orienting new staff;
- ▶ dispensing medication to patients.
- ▶ shouldering consequences of error to the organization;
- ▶ preventing possible damage to equipment;
- ▶ co-ordinating schedules for many people.

Working conditions:

- ▶ stress from open office noise, crowded conditions;
- ▶ exposure to disease and stress from caring for ill people;
- ▶ dealing with upset, irate or irrational people;
- ▶ cleaning offices, stores, machinery, hospital wards;
- ▶ heavy lifting (e.g., packing goods for shipment);
- ▶ frequent lifting and bending (e.g., childcare work);
- ▶ stress from answering complaints;
- ▶ long periods of travel and/or isolation.

Effort:

- ▶ adjusting to rapid changes in office or plant technology;
- ▶ concentrating for prolonged periods at computer terminals, lab benches and manufacturing equipment;
- ▶ performing complex sequences of hand-eye co-ordination in industrial jobs;
- ▶ deciding the content and format of reports and presentations to clients;
- ▶ providing service to several people or departments, working under many simultaneous deadlines;
- ▶ developing work schedules for subordinates;
- ▶ frequent lifting (office or medical supplies, retail goods, injured or sick people).

Responsibility:

- ▶ caring for patients, children, institutionalized people;
- ▶ protecting confidentiality;
- ▶ acting on behalf of absent supervisors;
- ▶ representing the organization through communications with clients and the public;
- ▶ supervising staff;

You can collect job information from every member of a job class, or from a good sample. To address gender bias, you may consider surveying or interviewing more workers in female job classes than in male job classes.

Before sending out the questionnaire, review the questions with people familiar with the jobs. See if any of the questions are unclear, incomplete, or have the potential to produce biased results for female jobs.

Include clear instructions for the questionnaire's respondents. Outline the reasons for collecting this information, and make sure people understand that it is the job that is being looked at, not the person. Make sure, too, that the method for distributing the questionnaire and returning it guarantees maximum participation. The questionnaire should reach its audience promptly, and you should be able to retrieve it equally efficiently. If necessary, hold follow-up sessions to discuss the questionnaire and its results.

Developing a Job Information Statement

Defining the statement

A job information statement summarizes the responsibilities, requirements and working conditions of a specific job based on the information collected in the job analysis process. It ranges from a list of tasks and duties to a formal job description.

This information statement can then be used as the basis for comparing and evaluating jobs.

A job information statement could include:

- ▶ the purpose of the job;
- ▶ the tasks and duties to be performed and the effort required;
- ▶ the supervision given and received;
- ▶ the work environment and the hazards encountered;
- ▶ the tools and work aids used to perform the duties.

From a job information statement, the skill, effort, responsibilities and working conditions for every job in the organization can be determined.

Like job analysis, the job information statement does not describe the skill, background or qualifications of the person doing the job, only the job itself.

Making the distinction between *jobs* and the *people* in the jobs is the hardest part of the process.

Keep these examples in mind:

- ▶ The taxi driver who drove you home from work may have a graduate degree in Economics (but the job requires “the ability to drive”).
- ▶ The secretary of a small construction company may have a degree in Commerce, (but the job requires “four years of secretarial experience”).

Would the qualifications of these particular employees be included in a statement of duties? No, obviously. When paying for these services, are the individual’s qualifications considered? Chances are, the focus is on the job to be done.

Recording job information

There is no single “correct” way to record job information. But these basic steps can make the process simple and straightforward. Both organizations with recorded job information, and those without, can follow them. Remember, however, to use the same approach and format for all jobs.

STEP 1: Review the results of job analysis.

Make sure that information is collected in a fair way, and that complete, unbiased information is available on both female and male jobs.

STEP 2: Identify the job.

It is helpful to have identifying information for each job so that titles, names of supervisors and other facts are clearly shown – for example, the date that information was collected.

STEP 3: State the job’s purpose.

This can be a summary of the duties, outlining in general terms what the job contributes to the organization.

Examples

Title: Payroll Clerk

Summary: Processes payroll information into computer system and verifies paycheques.

Title: Estimator

Summary: Develops accurate, complete estimates for each project, and provides information and technical support to sales staff.

In each case, the summary provides the reader with a sense of the job’s framework.

STEP 4: Check for inaccurate or sexist job titles.

This is a good opportunity to review the titles of the jobs in the organization. Check for inflated, biased or misleading titles, such as “Executive Assistant” for a male job, and “Administrative Assistant” for the female equivalent. (If the duties are identical, the same titles should be used for both.) Another example: “Charwoman” or “Cleaner” for the female job, and “Custodian” for the male job, though both may have identical duties in cleaning a building. Some organizations use titles to reward employees, such as calling people “Editorial Assistants,” when the job duties are secretarial or clerical, rather than editorial.

SAMPLE LIST OF NON-SEXIST JOB TITLES

Use	Instead of
cleaner	cleaning lady
draftsperson, drafter	draftsman
firefighter	fireman
flight attendant	stewardess
journalist	newsman
maintenance worker	maintenance man
nurse	male/female nurse
supervisor	foreman/forelady
police officer	policeman/policewoman
repairer	repairman
sales clerk	salesman/saleslady
sales representative	salesman
security guard	watchman
server	waiter/waitress
storeskeeper	storesman
theatre attendant	usherette

STEP 5: Identify the major and minor duties for each job.

Job duties are usually listed in descending order from the most to the least important. Duties can be defined as “major” or “minor.”

Major duties are those which reflect the primary purpose of a job. Looking at the job summary and title can help determine the major duties. A major duty in a dietary job in a nursing home could be “preparing meal trays,” for example.

Minor duties are those that are performed in support of the major duties, or those that are not necessarily related to the major purpose of the position. A minor duty in a dietary job, for instance, could be “cleaning up.”

MAJOR AND MINOR DUTIES: AN EXERCISE

It is sometimes difficult to decide the most important duties. Which are the major/minor duties in the job below? As an exercise you may wish to re-number them accordingly.

JOB TITLE: Computer Entry Clerk

Duties:

1. Inputs daily accounts payable invoices for payment, and balances totals to invoice registers.
2. Processes cheques and payments by setting up vendor accounts, inputting invoices, processing cheque requisitions, obtaining approvals and mailing cheques after balancing.
3. Updates monthly accounts receivable and accounts payable to the general ledger, and generates month-end reports for all departments.
4. Enters payroll input from time cards and other records, and reconciles with payroll registers.
5. Maintains computer security procedures, confidentiality of records, and climate control in the computer room.

STEP 6: Rank the duties in frequency and importance.

When it is difficult to choose which duties are major or minor, duties can be ranked in terms of frequency and importance. Frequency refers to the amount of time spent doing a particular duty, and how often it is done. Importance refers to the relative value of a particular duty to the job and to the organization.

But this approach can lead to problems if frequency is the only way duties are ranked. In many jobs, relatively little time is spent doing very important duties. For instance, a childcare worker may spend 10 per cent of the time dealing with hard to handle children, which is an important part of the job. Traditional job evaluation has often contributed to the undervaluation of female jobs by considering only the amount of time spent on a duty, rather than the skills required, and the value of those skills to the organization.

Which is the most important duty in this sample job?

A secretary spends 60 per cent of the time operating a word processor, 20 per cent researching and compiling statistics, 10 per cent answering telephones, responding to enquiries and transferring calls, 5 per cent maintaining the supervisor's appointment calendar, and 5 per cent writing and editing reports.

Taking into account only the time spent on typing would undervalue the importance of the other duties. Instead, a good approach is to combine the major/minor listing (Step 5) with the ranking of the importance of the duties, to give a complete picture of the job.

STEP 7: Make sure others understand what the work involves.

Not everyone has the same understanding of job titles and duties. Provide enough detail so that there is no doubt of the skills and effort required in a job.

Which of these descriptive sentences below gives you a complete idea of what is involved in the job?

Acts as receptionist OR Greets visitors, determines the nature of their visits, and directs them.

Performs accounting duties OR Posts daily transactions to general ledger, balances accounts, and contacts clients to resolve discrepancies.

In the past, many jobs have not been described in detail, and the incomplete, generalized way of looking at these job duties has led to undervaluing of their required skills, effort and responsibilities in addition to working conditions.

STEP 8: List the work aids used to perform the work.

The job information should provide an accurate impression of the type of equipment that is operated to perform the duties of the job. The equipment used relates directly to the skill, effort, responsibilities and working conditions of each job. For example:

Lab Technician: microscopes, Bunsen burners, centrifuge, micro-computer, micrometer, scales, fume hood, pipettes, sterilizer.

Secretary: electric typewriter, ABC micro-computer with word processing and spreadsheet software, fax machine, collating photocopier.

Retail Clerk: automated cash register, demagnetizer, electronic security system, telephone, credit card verifier, cleaning sprays and vacuum cleaner.

STEP 9: Include the job requirements/job specifications.

The job requirements (or job specifications) can be listed at the end of the job information statement. These are descriptions of the job in terms of the skill, effort, responsibility and working conditions involved. The job specifications give the reader additional information on the content of the job, and its impact on the organization.

Writing it up: a checklist

The purpose of a job information statement is to provide the reader with a clear understanding of what is done, why it is done and how it is done.

The following guidelines will help you to prepare clear, bias-free job information statements:

Make sure that both women's and men's work activities are described accurately, using simple, straightforward, precise and bias-free language.

Use glossaries, dictionaries, or instruction manuals to find the simplest, clearest verbs and nouns to describe what is actually done.

In the past, different language has been used to describe men's and women's jobs, and identical duties have been described in different language depending on the person doing the work. Men "manage" or "direct," and women "supervise" or "co-ordinate." Men "assume responsibility," and women "assist" or "participate." Men are "responsible for worksite safety" and women "take care" of the needs of children in a day-care centre. In all of these cases, weaker words are used for women's job duties, and this should be avoided.

Language can also reflect unconscious bias when job duties are being described. This is called a "gender halo" that prevents people from seeing the diversity, or an "expectation bias" in which they see what they expect to see regardless of the job's reality. To avoid these problems, make sure identical language is used to describe identical duties. Another common pitfall is using inflated language to describe simple procedures, which creates a false impression of the job's importance.

For example, the job information could read, "regulates, co-ordinates and monitors the flow of intra- and interprovincial traffic." What does this person really do? "Holds up stop and go signs at highway construction sites."

Explain technical terms

The people recording job information may think that all the terms describing the processes and equipment are obvious, because of their own familiarity with the work. But for others, duty statements such as these may lead to confusion: "completes R-365's and files returning M219's"; "calibrates Geo-Tech 90 and adjusts screen density."

If technical terms are not easily understood, an evaluator may not correctly assess the skills and responsibilities of a position, nor the effort involved. Also, the use of some technical terms may exaggerate the importance of the activity.

Start each duty statement with a verb in the third person, present tense.

The most effective way to write about duties is to start with *what is done*: "cleans rooms"; "types letters"; "answers incoming calls"; "advises clients"; "supervises staff"; "waits on tables"; "inserts components"; "cuts materials to patterns."

Avoid beginning statements with phrases like "responsible for" and "must be able to," and "assists" since these are vague terms.

Include enough detail about the job.

The purpose of having a clear and accurate job information statement is to permit the comparison of jobs. Not providing enough information can frustrate that process.

Be clear and concise. Using an overly simple verb, for instance, could mean that the job is undervalued, since the skills, effort and responsibility involved are not communicated. "Handles mail" could mean the following: receiving, logging, reading, and distributing mail. It could also include locating background material related to the correspondence and attaching it for the reader's information. In some cases, it could entail editing and proofreading outgoing mail, which involves responsibility for an organization's public image. "Waits on tables" could also mean that the employee greets customers, determines their immediate needs, answers questions and responds to requests promptly.

Review the content

The person who does the job is an excellent source of information.

Consult the employee first, to learn details of what is done, and how. When a draft of the job information data has been completed, it should be reviewed by the incumbents and the supervisor(s) involved. They will be able to identify any duties or other details that have been omitted. Use their input to revise the information.

Union representatives should check to see if gender bias has crept into either the collection or recording of job information, where it could affect job comparisons. Union members could be provided with training on describing their jobs accurately.

Job information statement: a sample format

This is not the only format to record job information, but it covers the essential facts you need in order to make job comparisons.

ORGANIZATION/NAME:

JOB TITLE:

DATE PREPARED:

PART A: JOB CONTENT

1. **JOB SUMMARY:** State the primary purpose of the job in one or two sentences.
2. **JOB DUTIES AND RESPONSIBILITIES:** List the major duties in descending order of importance, then the secondary or minor duties. (You may want to indicate the percentage of time for each.)
3. **SUPERVISION RECEIVED:** Does the employee receive direct supervision, guidance, instruction, or general direction?
4. **MACHINES AND WORK AIDS USED:** List the applicable items.

PART B: JOB SPECIFICATIONS/ JOB REQUIREMENTS

Describe the minimum requirements needed to perform the job duties under the following categories:

Skill
Effort
Responsibility
Working Conditions

NOTE: Job requirements should be based on the duties of the job itself: i.e., each item in this section should relate to one or more of the duties outlined in the first section.

PART C: ADDITIONAL INFORMATION

You can add background information and details to clarify aspects of the duties.

SIGNING THE STATEMENT OFF

It is recommended that in the pay equity plan process both employees and their supervisors review the content of job information and job requirement statements. They should agree that it accurately and completely reflects the essence of job duties and requirements. If union representatives are involved in this part of the process, they too should review and sign the documents.

Signatures may not be required but it is advisable to indicate that agreement on job duties was reached. In some cases, if disagreement exists as to actual duties performed, employees, bargaining agents and employers should note the specific duties in question.

Job information statements: a bad example

ABC Company: Retail Division
Job Title: Storeman [man is a sexist title]
Employee: Freddy Samson [do not need incumbents name]
Summary: Reporting to the Warehouse Manager, receives and stores incoming shipments from suppliers, and maintains complex inventory records [complex is a value-loaded adjective – more description is needed to understand what exactly is involved.]

DUTIES:

1. Receives incoming shipments; unloads trucks using forklifts and tow motors, and moves items to appropriate storage areas.
2. Verifies delivery slips against invoices, and liaises with suppliers to resolve discrepancies. **Must be tactful**, but firm. [Use “contacts” in place of liaises with. **Must be tactful...** describes the person, not the job. Try “the job involves handling disagreements which may arise, etc. ...”]
3. Updates complex inventory records daily and co-ordinates their dispatch to clerk for processing. [what makes them complex? Use “forwards” in place of co-ordinates.]
4. Retrieves, packs and prepares items for delivery to retail stores. May involve his lifting up to 20 kg. [May ... is it part of the job or not? His is not neutral.]

JOB SPECIFICATIONS:

Skill: Ability to operate very valuable, complex equipment and perform statistical calculations. Excellent human relations skills essential. Must be a high school graduate with three years progressively responsible experience: [Very valuable... is it a forklift? Are statistical calculations arithmetic only? Excellent human relations skills is exaggerated.]

Effort: Heavy physical effort may be required. Frequent lifting demanded. [Heavy... how heavy? May – is it or isn't it? Frequent ... how often, hourly, daily?]

Responsibility: Responsible for valuable equipment and shipment of goods. Errors costly to company if orders misplaced or delayed. [Valuable is misleading.]

Working Conditions: Lifting and moving heavy items can be hazardous. Some exposure to cold in winter, but most work performed in well-lit warehouse. [Lifting... double counted since also under effort.]

Job information statements: test yourself

Circle those items in the following job information statement that may result in gender bias.

Job Title: Junior Admitting Co-ordinator

Summary: To assist the Admitting Supervisor in administering procedures and policies.

DUTIES:

1. Responsible for ordering office supplies.
2. Assumes the responsibilities of the supervisor in his absence.
3. Provides the orientation of new admitting staff in liaison with the supervisor.
4. Assists other staff and clarifies procedures as required.
5. Assists in the implementation and enforcement of hospital procedures and policies.
6. Reviews daily admissions with respect to accuracy and discusses same with other staff.
7. Types and checks admission documentation and notes any information to be audited. Files in numerical order, as required.
8. Responsible for the proper function of all departmental equipment. Deals with repairmen when appropriate.

REQUIREMENTS:

- neat appearance
- good communication skills
- good health and grooming habits
- typing of minimum 50 w.p.m.
- ability to read, write and speak English
- second-language skills useful
- Grade 13 diploma

Here is an accurate, unbiased job information statement for the same job:

Job Title: Admitting Clerk ["clerk" is a more appropriate title].

Summary: Admits hospital patients and maintains admitting records. [Use straightforward and understandable verbs.]

DUTIES:

1. Interviews incoming patients to obtain required information including name, address, Ontario Health Insurance Plan number etc., [communicates what is being done, why and how.]
2. Enters all patient data on computer and updates files as notified by physician or nursing staff.
3. Explains hospital admissions policies and procedures to incoming patients.
4. Prepares daily admissions reports from computer records for the Admitting Supervisor and notes any items requiring follow-up or clarification.
5. Trains new clerical staff in admitting procedures and provides interpretation and advice on request.
6. Maintains computer and manual records by updating, filing and retrieving information.
7. Orders and stores office supplies. Contacts service representatives.

REQUIREMENTS:

The work requires communication skills to obtain information from patients (many of whom are from other cultures), and to transmit detailed information to medical and administrative staff. The ability to operate a micro-computer [not "typing"] is essential to enter and maintain data and to generate reports. The employee must have good knowledge of hospital admitting and OHIP procedures.

The work involves stress in dealing with patients and families, and in responding to multiple requests for assistance in peak periods. The work station is in a crowded office, with considerable noise and interruptions from staff, patients and telephones. Some lifting of light-medium objects is required in storing office supplies and moving case files.

2

UNDERSTANDING JOB EVALUATION

After job information has been collected, the process of job comparison can begin.

Throughout the Pay Equity Act (Bill 154), the term “gender-neutral system of comparison” is used. A “job evaluation system”, for example, is only one kind of job comparison system. The terms are often used interchangeably, but job comparison systems do not have to be job evaluation systems.

There are two reasons for using the term “job comparison” rather than “job evaluation” in relation to pay equity. First, while the term “job evaluation” has been in use for decades, it does not have a standard common meaning.

Second, job evaluation is concerned about establishing the relative worth of jobs within an organization. On the other hand, a job comparison system under the Pay Equity Act requires the assessment of the worth of female and male jobs and identifying which are of equal value.

However, in many instances the parties involved in implementing pay equity will design, adopt or modify a job evaluation system which will help them to do pay equity job comparisons. The purpose of this section is to describe the standard methods of job evaluation that have been used for many years. Then the next chapter examines the systems from a pay equity perspective. This will help employers, employees and bargaining agents to understand how job evaluation systems can fit into the overall process of pay equity.

Job Evaluation Defined

"Job evaluation is a systematic process for determining the relative value of jobs to an employer."

Let's examine this definition phrase by phrase.

*"Job evaluation is a systematic process for determining the relative value of **jobs** to an employer."*

Job evaluation is concerned only with **jobs**, not with the people who do them. It is possible to evaluate a job even if there is no one performing it. Job descriptions – the information on which most job evaluation systems are based – refer to the duties and responsibilities that are part of the job, not to the performance of the individual who holds the job. In this respect the pay equity process is consistent with one of the primary characteristics of job evaluation: it is concerned with the content of the job, not the characteristics of the employee.

*"**Job evaluation is a systematic process** for determining the relative value of jobs to an employer."*

Determining the relative value or worth of jobs involves some degree of subjective judgement, but if the process is a **systematic** series of steps, the subjective element is minimized.

Subjectivity on important matters is part of our world. There are some issues on which you can be completely objective – for example, Smith & Smith had sales of \$47,102 last month. But many of the decisions and statements that we make each day are based, at least in part, on subjective judgement – for instance, Proposal A is better than Proposal B, even though it has a higher price tag.

However, a subjective judgement does not have to be arbitrary.

Arbitrary judgements are capricious, random and based on whim. If subjective decisions are made systematically – according to an agreed-upon method – they will not be arbitrary. The subjective judgements made in the process of job evaluation should be made systematically, explicitly and consistently.

*"Job evaluation is a systematic process for determining the **relative value** of jobs to an employer."*

Employers usually assign a salary or wage to a job. This amount can reflect a number of forces: the content of the job; *salaries for similar or dissimilar jobs in the same organization*; salaries for similar jobs in other organizations; supply and demand; and changes in the cost of living, unionization.

Job evaluation, however, is concerned only with the first issue – job content – not with any of the other factors that may influence assignment of salary or wage rates.

Job evaluation is a tool to identify the relative worth of jobs within an organization: that is, it is concerned with internal equity, or fairness, between jobs within that organization. This, of course, is different from external equity, which involves determining whether a job in one organization is paid the same as a similar job in another organization. External equity is concerned with factors other than job content – mainly market forces. External equity is an issue separate from job evaluation and from pay equity.

For example, consider two jobs within an organization – nurse and photocopier operator. Internal equity requires that the job that is more valuable – more central to the success of the organization – be paid more than a job with less impact on the success of the organization. In this example, it seems obvious that the job of nurse would be valued more highly and therefore should be paid more than the job of the photocopier operator.

But external equity considers how the jobs of nurse and food service worker in this organization are paid in relation to the same jobs in other organizations. This type of comparison is **not** a pay equity issue.

In the example of the nurse and the food service worker, it is easy to conclude that the nurse's job is of more value to the organization. However, determining the relative value of jobs is not always that straightforward.

Which of these jobs, for example, is more valuable to an organization – secretary, account clerk, driver or tool and die maker? And which of these – accountant, engineer or personnel officer? In these cases, the answers are not immediately apparent. That illustrates why job evaluation is necessary and important.

“Job evaluation is a systematic process for determining the relative value of jobs to an employer.”

Job evaluation confines itself to the value of jobs in an employer's own organization. What is valued most highly in one organization of course, may be valued differently in another organization.

Therefore, it is possible that similar jobs would be valued differently in different organizations – even in organizations that are similar in function or are within the same industry.

The Basic Steps

Several kinds of job evaluation systems are available. But all systems have some characteristics in common:

- ▶ each one is applied within an organization or a part of an organization
- ▶ each one involves a set of systematic steps (a method)
- ▶ each one uses some criteria for comparing jobs (compensable factors)
- ▶ each one focuses on job content (not characteristics of employees)
- ▶ the end result of each one is a list of jobs in terms of their value to the organization (job hierarchy or job structure)

Essentially, job evaluation systems are distinguished from one another by the particular set of steps involved and the particular definitions of the criteria selected. Every job evaluation system requires a series of steps, but the order in which these steps are carried out may also vary.

For example, collecting job information is a necessary step in all job evaluation systems, and it could be done first. Alternatively, the criteria on which jobs are to be evaluated may be selected first, and the job information may then be collected in terms of those criteria.

Also, not all steps will be used. Some organizations will have one or more committees of employees involved in the job evaluation process, while others may decide that this stage is unnecessary.

However, in general the steps in job evaluation include the following:

- ▶ collecting job information
- ▶ selecting and training a job evaluation committee
- ▶ selecting a job evaluation method
- ▶ choosing and defining compensable factors
- ▶ weighting compensable factors
- ▶ selecting benchmark jobs and
- ▶ evaluating jobs

Job information collection was described in detail in the preceding chapter. Each of the other steps is discussed below.

1. Selecting and training a job evaluation committee

A job evaluation committee may be established to design or select the job evaluation system and/or carry out the actual evaluation of jobs. The same committee can address both tasks, or different committees can be assigned to each.

Members of any job evaluation committee should include people who are knowledgeable about the many different types of jobs in the organization. They should be people whose opinions and judgements are trusted by employees throughout their organization.

The committee may be composed of a cross-section of employees representing a variety of levels throughout the organization, both management and non-management. Evaluating union jobs typically is done jointly with the union. Employee demographics, in terms of such factors as age, length of service and gender, might also be taken into account, so that committee members represent the workplace's particular population. (For more information about assembling a committee, see page 32 in the next chapter.)

Assigning a committee to conduct job evaluation has two important advantages. First, it ensures that the evaluation will be based on a broad knowledge of the jobs in question. Second, the work of the committee will be more easily accepted by employees, assuming that committee members are respected by their co-workers and regarded as fair-minded.

Once a job evaluation committee has been assembled, it is important that the members receive training in job evaluation, and on the specific method and factors (and subfactors) that their organization uses. It is vital to the success of their work that all members of the committee understand that they are rating jobs, not employees, and that they agree with the definitions of the subfactors used.

Selecting the job evaluation method

There are four basic types of job evaluation systems and a number of variants of each type. The four types differ in complexity and in their suitability for various sizes and kinds of organizations.

However, some research conducted in the 1940s and 1950s has shown that when used on identical sets of jobs, all four systems produce very similar results. An organization may choose one of the simpler methods without concern for the quality of the results.

The four basic types of job evaluation systems are:

- ranking
- classification (or grade description)
- factor comparison and
- point (or point factor)

In general, each type on the list is slightly more complex than the one before it.

The first two types are often referred to as qualitative methods, because they look at each job as a whole and compare it with other jobs according to some general principles of value and work content.

The last two types are often referred to as quantitative methods, because they result in specific numerical evaluations for each job. Rather than looking at each job as a whole, these methods break down the job into factors, value each factor separately, and add these up to emerge with a number that reflects a composite value of all the factors.

Ranking method

Ranking, the simplest of the four methods, is traditionally a three-step process. First, job descriptions are studied. Second, one or two criteria are selected and defined, for example, responsibility or skill. Then the jobs are put in order, from the job that is most valuable to the employer to the one that is least valuable in terms of the criterion selected.

One way to do this is with a card sort. The description of each job is noted on a separate card, and the evaluators sort the cards into the appropriate order. This is done by selecting the one that is most valuable, then the least valuable, then the second most valuable, the second least valuable, and so on.

In this process, the easier evaluations are made first. Then the evaluators can concentrate on the more difficult ones – those in the middle of the range. When there is more than one evaluator, their rankings are combined.

Another way to rank jobs is through paired comparisons. Each job is compared with every other job, one at a time. In each case, the evaluator decides which of the two jobs is more valuable according to the criteria chosen. The chart below gives an example of how this can work.

Job	B	C	D
A. Account Clerk	A	C	D
B. Driver		C	D
C. Engineer			C
D. Personnel Officer			

Number of times each job was found to rank higher:

A. Account Clerk	1
B. Driver	0
C. Engineer	3
D. Personnel Officer	2

When each of the four jobs is compared with the three other jobs, account clerk comes out higher once, driver never comes out higher, engineer rates higher three times and personnel officer rates higher twice. Thus, in this example, the ranking order would be engineer, personnel officer, account clerk, and driver.

Ranking is a simple and straightforward system of job evaluation, but it has limitations. It is traditionally used when there is a small number of jobs to compare. For example, with 15 jobs, one must do 105 pair comparisons. (This is based on the following formula: Number of comparisons = $[n(n-1)] \div 2$ where n = the number of jobs.) Also, as it is a method that rates whole jobs, evaluators must think about all aspects of the job at one time.

Traditionally, ranking has been done with only one or two criteria. But pay equity requires the use of a composite of four factors: skill, effort, responsibility and working conditions. This would mean, for example, doing four card sorts to rank jobs according to each one of those factors. (See the next chapter for more information on adapting the ranking method for pay equity purposes.)

Because of its simplicity and use with only a few jobs, this method has traditionally been used by small employers. By making the changes suggested in the next chapter to enhance gender neutrality, this method will continue to be useful for smaller employers.

Classification (or grade description) method

Classifications are based on “job families” – groupings of jobs in similar occupations. Clerical jobs, for example, would be in one job family; managerial jobs would be in another. Within a family, some jobs are often classified according to level – for example, Clerk 1, Clerk 2 and Clerk 3 to form a job series.

The tasks and responsibilities of Clerk 2 would be at a higher level than those of Clerk 1, and those of Clerk 3 would be at a higher level than those of Clerk 2. The job of Clerk 2 thus would be of greater value to the employer than the job of Clerk 1, and the job of Clerk 3 would be of still greater value. However, all jobs within a job family have similar kinds of content, and it would be normal for employees in these groups to move from one level to the next.

Grade groupings, on the other hand, are clusters of jobs that may be totally different in content but have the same value to the employer. They can be developed by the methods described below.

The classification and grade description methods of job evaluation are the same, except that the classification method has an extra first step: separating jobs within the organization into different job families. (Common job families are clerical, plant, professional and technical, and managerial). Once the job families are identified, both the classification and grade description methods follow the same steps.

1. First, the number of classifications or grades to be used is determined.

This is an arbitrary decision. The advantage of having a large number of classes or grades is that each one can be more precisely defined. The advantage of a smaller number is that each is broader and therefore it is easier to identify which jobs belong to which classification or grade.

2. Next, each class or grade is described.

Class descriptions can always be more specifically defined than grade descriptions because they relate to jobs within a particular job family, with similarities of tasks and duties.

3. Finally, each individual job description is compared with the class or grade descriptions and the job is slotted into the most appropriate class or grade.

This is an area where judgement is involved. No class or grade description will be identical to the description of any specific job. Often, part of it will fit one class or grade and another part will fit another category more closely. However, ultimately a final decision has to be made and each job must be slotted into one class or grade.

The classification method of job evaluation, as noted, commonly has been geared to specific job families – groups of jobs reflecting a particular kind of work. Job families, however, tend to be gender specific. Limiting job evaluation to job families is inconsistent with pay equity, because it does not allow the comparison of dissimilar jobs that may be of equal value.

Also, both ranking and classification examine jobs as a whole. (We will discuss how to do ranking and classification *in a pay equity* context in Chapter 3.) This tends to encourage thinking about them in terms of employees, rather than the jobs alone. Many jobs are associated with one gender – for example, as most secretaries are women, one tends to connect women with secretarial work. This can skew one's judgement about the actual content of the job. For pay equity purposes, it is important to minimize any tendency to consider jobs in terms of the gender of the traditional worker in that job.

Point (or point factor) method

The point factor system is a widely used method of job evaluation. Rather than examining a whole job at once, this method breaks a job down into factors and subfactors, and measures the value of each of them separately for each job. The values assigned for each factor and subfactor are then added; the total or composite of these factor values becomes, in turn, the point value of the job.

Many point factor systems use skill, effort, responsibility and working conditions as their main factors. Each factor is usually subdivided into two or more subfactors. Effort, for example, might be subdivided into physical effort and mental effort.

Each subfactor is then divided into a number of levels; each level is defined and given a certain number of points, so a specific value for that subfactor can be assigned to every job being evaluated.

For example, mental effort might be divided into five levels:

- Level 1:** Makes only routine decisions from a clear-cut set of options.
- Level 2:** Makes mostly routine decisions from a clear-cut set of options; periodically develops decision options for someone else to select from.
- Level 3:** Generates alternatives for moderately complex problems.
- Level 4:** Analyzes complex problems and makes recommendations.
- Level 5:** Analyzes complex problems and makes decisions.

It is important to use enough levels to cover the different levels (or degrees) of the subfactor required in every job, so that jobs requiring different levels of that subfactor quality are valued differently.

The actual numbers attached to each level and to each subfactor may be different, depending on what is appropriate within the organization. In one organization, for example, there may be a need for very fine distinctions in mental effort, but the amount of physical effort demanded by all jobs might be similar. In that case, it would be appropriate to have numerous levels of mental effort in the job evaluation system, but only two or three levels for physical effort. In another organization, where a number of jobs involve fairly heavy physical effort and other jobs require relatively little, more levels of the subfactor for physical effort would be required to reflect the realities of that workplace.

With the point factor system, the compensable factors may be weighted differently based on the particular circumstances of the organization. One organization might use these subfactors and weights:

Skill	
Experience in the job	10%
Education and training required	10
Effort	
Mental	20
Physical	10
Responsibility	
For money	10
For work done by others	12
For those served	12
For equipment	6
Working conditions	
Physical environment	5
Stress	5
Total	100%

This percentage breakdown would reflect the relative values placed on each of the subfactors within that particular organization.

Once the percentages for the weights are determined and the total number of possible points is selected – usually 500 or 1000 or 1500 – the number of points for each level of each subfactor is calculated. The outcome will be a clear blueprint for the total number of points assigned for each level of each subfactor.

Using the same hypothetical example shown above, the end result would be a schedule of point values to be applied in evaluating all jobs in the group under consideration.

In this example, the maximum number of points in the system is 500 selected subfactors, weights and assigned points.

	Percentage	Number of points
Skill		
Experience in the job	10	10-50
Education and training required	10	10-50
Effort		
Mental	20	20-100
Physical	10	10-50
Responsibility		
For money	10	10-50
For work done by others	12	12-60
For those served	12	12-60
For equipment	6	6-30
Working conditions		
Physical environment	5	5-25
Stress	5	5-25
Total	100%	100-500

Development of a point factor system is a time-consuming process. Defining subfactors and determining the number of levels required for each one can be difficult.

It is also important to ensure that no two subfactors measure the same attribute. For example, education and decision-making often overlap, as might judgement and initiative.

By the same token, the range of subfactors used must reflect all of the attributes found in all of the jobs being evaluated. Otherwise, some jobs would be undervalued.

Point systems originally designed for industrial jobs and then applied to office jobs are almost certain to be gender biased, because the factors and subfactors originally were designed to assess traditionally male jobs.

Once a point system has been developed, it is relatively easy to apply and maintain. With this kind of system, evaluators rate each factor and subfactor separately and then total their ratings to come up with a value for the job. They do not have to look at the “whole job” all at once in their rating procedure, as they do with the ranking or with classification and grade systems.

However, they do have to be careful to avoid allowing their evaluation of one subfactor to influence their evaluation of another subfactor. This is a “halo effect.” One way to prevent this is to rate a number of jobs for one subfactor, then rate the same jobs on another subfactor, and so on.

Even though the point system results in a specific numerical value for each job, it is important to remember that the element of subjectivity cannot be eliminated. Thus, a job rated at 221 points is not necessarily more valuable than a job rated at 220 points. No method of job evaluation can be that precise. Commonly, a number of points are grouped or banded together – for example, 300 to 325 points – and all jobs within that range are treated as jobs of comparable value.

The size of each point spread depends on the total number of points in the system and the preference for broadly or narrowly defined job grades. Whatever size is decided on, it is usually consistently used throughout the system. The size of point spread chosen can affect promotions as well as other matters affecting the workforce.

Factor comparison method

This is the least popular of the four kinds of job evaluation methods, probably because it is the most complex.

With the factor comparison method, jobs are ranked on their total worth (either using current salaries or 100 points). Then each job is evaluated in terms of the contribution of each factor to its total worth.

Next, the individual factor evaluations are totalled; these totals are ranked into a hierarchy. The two rankings – the original “total worth” of each job and the total of the individual factor evaluations for each job – are compared and discrepancies are resolved.

After a number of jobs have been ranked according to this system, a coding scheme can be produced against which all other jobs can be ranked.

The traditional method of doing factor comparisons is unacceptable for pay equity purposes, because it relies on current salaries. Since the point of pay equity is to determine the extent to which female-dominated jobs are undervalued, the job evaluation system assessing this issue cannot be based on current salaries. The 100-point method would have to be used instead – but this requires more work to develop.

Market pricing

Market pricing is not a job evaluation – it does not assess job content – but it is used by many employers as an alternative to job evaluation for determining compensation. Market pricing *cannot* be used to achieve pay equity.

3. Choosing and defining compensable factors

A compensable factor is a job element for which an employee receives compensation. Typical compensable factors are skill, effort, responsibility and working conditions – the four criteria specified by the Pay Equity Act as the basis for all comparison systems to be used in the pay equity process.

However, these are broad factors and each one could encompass a number of subfactors. How the factors are defined and the choice of subfactors used in an organization's job evaluation system are clearly subjective decisions, linked to the qualities particularly valued by that organization.

For example, consider the factor of responsibility. Does this mean responsibility for money, for equipment, for people – or for all three? If it includes responsibility for people, does that mean people supervised, or people served (customers, patients, clients or students) – or both? None of these definitions are right or wrong, but they could be “appropriate” or “inappropriate” for a particular organization.

Any criteria may be valid for job evaluation purposes as long as they:

- ▶ reflect what is valued and acceptable to those involved
- ▶ are based on job content
- ▶ are found in different amounts in the jobs being evaluated (if a compensable factor is equally present in all jobs, it cannot be useful in distinguishing between them)
- ▶ are not redundant (if a particular subfactor is included more than once, jobs containing this quality are getting double credit for it)
- ▶ are not gender biased

Although there are many possible subfactors for each of the four basic factors, no more than two or three are typically used for each one in a single system. If more than 12 to 15 subfactors are used, the system can become unwieldy and difficult to apply.

It is important to choose a combination of subfactors that accurately reflects the range of qualities valued in the organization's whole array of jobs. Some subfactors and some definitions tend to favour duties traditionally associated with jobs done mostly by men or mostly by women (see page 36). Using them could inject a degree of gender bias into the system.

The following list of possible subfactors is not exhaustive, but it indicates how the four required factors have been interpreted.

You will notice that some subfactors under one heading may be similar to subfactors under another heading; for example, monotony could be considered a subfactor of either effort or working conditions. Care must be taken in selecting subfactors, so that some qualities are not counted twice.

Skill

Ability to do detailed or routine work
Accuracy
Analytical ability
Aptitude required
Communication skills – verbal
Communication skills – written
Communicating in a second language
Dexterity
Difficulty of operation/work
Education
Experience
Ingenuity
Initiative
Interpersonal
Judgement
Knowledge
Knowledge of machinery
Knowledge of materials and processes
Managerial techniques
Manual quickness
Manual or motor skills
Physical skill (co-ordination)
Problem solving
Resourcefulness
Social skills
Time required to adapt skills
Time required to become 80 percent effective
Versatility

Effort

Attention demand
Concentration
Manual effort
Manual effort/demand
Mental fatigue
Monotony and discomfort
Muscular or nerve strain
Physical fatigue
Pressure of work
Stress from dealing with difficult people
(e.g., sick, handling complaints)
Visual application
Volume of work

Responsibility

Accountability
Accuracy
Adjustability
Cash
Confidential data
Contact with public, and/or customers/clients, etc.
Co-ordination
Cost of errors
Consequence of error
Dependability
Details
Determining company policy
Effect on other operations
Equipment and machinery
Goodwill and public relations
Material
Methods
Monetary responsibility
Personnel
Physical property
Plant and services
Protecting confidentiality
Product
Quality
Records
Safety of others
Spoilage of materials
Supervision of others
Volume of work

Working conditions

Attention to details
Constant interruptions
Danger
Cleaning up after others
Dirtiness
Disagreeableness
Exposure to accident hazard
Exposure to health hazard
Intangible conditions
Monotony
Out-of-town travel
Physical environment/surroundings
Stress of multiple demands
Time pressure

4. Weighting compensable factors

In selecting the criteria or subfactors to use in a job evaluation system, any organization will of course choose those that fit – those that reflect the organization's values. However, some criteria may be rated more highly than others.

It is not necessary for all the chosen subfactors to be given the same weight. With the quantitative job evaluation methods (that is, the point factor and factor comparison systems), the subfactors may be weighted. The qualitative methods (ranking and classification or grade description systems) do not typically allow for weighting easily.

The choice of a set of weightings involves a substantial degree of subjectivity. But any set of weights can be used, as long as it reflects what is valued by the organization and it is not gender biased.

For pay equity purposes, for example, a system that gives high ratings to subfactors commonly found mostly in “men's jobs” and low ratings to those commonly found in “women's jobs” is very likely to be gender discriminatory.

It is not uncommon for an employer to use different sets of weights for different job families. This is also a problem for pay equity purposes, as it is difficult to identify comparable jobs if different weights have been used.

There are two standard methods to decide the weights that should be applied to a job evaluation system: *a priori* and policy-capturing.

With the *a priori* approach, weightings can be determined independent of salaries. The employer (and bargaining agent, if a union is involved) simply makes judgements about subfactors that are most important to the organization and weights them accordingly.

The policy-capturing approach involves regression analysis, so it is only practical for organizations that have computer and statistical analysis capabilities. In policy-capturing, the actual values the organization currently places on each subfactor are identified from the way they are reflected in current salaries.

The traditional way this approach has been carried out has a drawback in terms of pay equity. While policy-capturing can be used to establish the weightings for “men's jobs,” it cannot be used to identify the weights for “women's jobs” because it relies on current salaries. There are means of overcoming this problem which are discussed in the next chapter.

5. Selecting benchmark jobs

Job evaluation is very time-consuming, and any way of simplifying the process and reducing the amount of time it takes is usually welcome.

It is not always necessary, for instance, to evaluate every single job in an organization. As the number of jobs grow, so can the cost. Any organization with more than 15 to 20 jobs (not employees) will likely only evaluate a sub-set of these jobs. In this case, “benchmark” or “key” jobs are the terms used to denote the jobs that are actually evaluated.

One could take, for example, a series or a group of jobs that have similar duties and responsibilities but at different levels. For example, an organization employs three different levels of librarians – librarian, senior librarian and supervising librarian. These are distinguished from each other by the increasing skill, mental effort and responsibility required at each succeeding level. Traditionally, the supervising librarian job has been paid 20 per cent more than the senior librarian job, which has been paid 17 per cent more than the librarian job.

There is no need to evaluate all three jobs. Once the value – and therefore the appropriate compensation – of one of them has been determined, the appropriate compensation for the others can be calculated, based on the established percentage differential. The job that is evaluated is sometimes called the “benchmark” job.

Although the term “benchmark” job is not used in the Pay Equity Act, it is acceptable to determine the value of a representative job in a series or a group of jobs and use it as a base for calculating the value of the other jobs in the series. However, this must *only* be done with groups of jobs that have similar duties and responsibilities at different levels and where the group as a whole would be female dominated. The job with the greatest number of employees must be used as the representative job in this case.

In point systems, sometimes, a benchmark job is used as an illustration of a particular level of a subfactor. For example,

Mental Skill		
Level		Benchmark Jobs
A	Performs simple work assignments where duties and results are obvious	Messenger
B	Performs simple work assignments where duties are obvious but require slight judgement to complete the job.	Receptionist

6. Actual evaluations of jobs

Whether a committee or a single individual evaluates jobs, the most important concern is that they evaluate the content of the job and not the person or persons doing the job.

The evaluation process will always be subjective, to some extent. But evaluations should not be biased. Bias means that a consistent, recurring error is being made.

Conclusion

The outcome of job evaluation is a hierarchy of jobs – a listing of the jobs in the organization, from the one of the highest value to the one of the lowest value.

The next chapter describes how to eliminate gender bias from the processes of job evaluation and comparison.

3

ENSURING GENDER NEUTRALITY IN JOB EVALUATION

The purpose of this section of the manual is to illustrate:

- ▶ how gender bias may have been incorporated into each step of traditional job evaluation systems;
- ▶ how gender neutrality can be inserted in order to achieve pay equity.

The previous chapter outlined conventional job evaluation systems and how to implement them. But to ensure pay equity, it is essential that gender neutrality be achieved throughout this process. This requires sensitivity and vigilance, because gender bias is often subtle. In the section that follows, we will look at each job evaluation step in terms of gender discrimination and show how to avoid the common mistakes.

Gender Neutrality and Job Evaluation Committees

A job evaluation committee can be a highly effective tool to avoid gender bias. One of the obstacles in spotting gender bias is its subtlety. But a diverse group of people can capitalize on their differing perspectives to identify gender bias that would escape most of them individually. In addition, committees can bring a greater knowledge about the organization's range of jobs, thus minimizing the risk of incomplete or inaccurate job information that can also lead to gender discrimination.

Some potential groups that could be represented on the committee, in addition to management, include:

1. Diversity in the make-up of a committee is important if the committee is to be effective. *Representation from all occupational groupings can help to ensure that diversity.* In addition, it creates a committee that has a broad knowledge about the full range of the organization's jobs. If it is impossible to include representatives from all occupational groups, make sure that women's jobs are adequately represented; in the past, pay inequities have resulted from a lack of understanding of the demands of women's jobs. A committee membership should reflect the proportion of men and women found within the organization, or within the pay equity plan.

2. If a committee is used to design or select a job comparison system, the Pay Equity Act requires representation from the bargaining unit. Since the bargaining agent must agree to the results of the job comparison system, *a joint union-management committee evaluation of the jobs makes sense.*

3. *To increase diversity, committee members can differ in age, length of service, organizational level and gender.* A committee comprised of such a cross-section is, of course, more difficult to direct than it would be if it were a homogeneous group. This is particularly true if the committee includes individuals from different levels in the hierarchy. But diversity is a top priority if the committee is to fulfil its mandate.

4. *The committee head must be careful to ensure that everyone has the opportunity to make an independent assessment of the jobs under evaluation.* There is always a danger of capitulation when the committee includes only a few "token" members; for example, if there is just one woman on a committee of eight men. This may mean that the "odd person out" is often ignored. It is very difficult for any one person – an older person in a younger group, a secretary in a group of managers – to represent adequately an entire group.

5. *Also, avoid appointing people to the committee who would be defensive about the old system.* Pay equity calls for change. This does not mean that the designers of any previous systems are guilty of intentional discrimination. Pay equity is addressing a societal issue; most current pay systems have some gender bias in them.

Thus, those on the committee should have the following characteristics: they should be knowledgeable about many jobs in the organization; open-minded, especially regarding pay equity issues; respected by their colleagues; able to make independent judgements; and objective about the current job evaluation system.

Training the committee

It is essential that the committee be trained. Since capitalizing on diversity is one important advantage of using a committee, training becomes even more critical.

While we evaluate issues all the time – our favourite restaurant, the advantages and disadvantages of different automobiles, the merits of a co-worker's job performance – formal assessment of the worth of jobs is not common. Focusing on the assessment of jobs, rather than on the people doing them, is new for most people. Therefore, there is little reason to assume that committee members have any particular skills in this area.

In addition, the concepts surrounding gender neutral job comparison systems are new. The kind of discrimination pay equity addresses is subtle and systemic. Most people think of discrimination as intentional and interpersonal. Communicating this difference requires training.

Some of the elements of appropriate training for an evaluation committee include:

- ▶ Evaluating jobs
 - History of job evaluation
 - How salaries and wages have been set in the past
- ▶ Pay equity issues
 - Pay equity and wage determination process
 - How gender bias can enter into evaluation systems
 - Trends in women's participation in the labour force
 - Rationale for pay equity
- ▶ Gender-neutral job comparison system
 - Specific mechanics of the system used by the organization

Adapting Job Evaluation for Gender Neutrality

Each of the traditional methods requires some adaptation for pay equity purposes.

Ranking and classification methods

Both the ranking and the classification methods are described as “whole job” methods. That is, traditionally, one evaluates all aspects of the job simultaneously. But this can pose a problem, because so many jobs are associated with one gender or the other. People often connect a woman with the job of a librarian, for example, or a man with the role of carpenter. Such assumptions make it difficult to consider the job independent of gender. Steps can be

taken, however, to minimize this connection, and they are outlined throughout this section.

The *ranking* method can be easily adapted for pay equity purposes. Instead of ranking the jobs only once, a separate ranking can be done for each of the four criteria – skill, effort, responsibility and working conditions. For example, four card sorts can be conducted. This reduces one of the primary advantages of the ranking method: its simplicity. However, using different groups to evaluate each criterion can make the process less onerous for any one set of evaluators. Alternatively, to maintain some consistency you can use four evaluation committees with some overlapping membership. Either approach minimizes the problem of evaluating “whole jobs,” as long as evaluators are given job information that is related strictly to the criterion (or criteria) they are evaluating.

It is also easy to adapt the paired comparison methodology to pay equity requirements. Four separate paired comparisons – one for each criterion – can be completed. While at least four card sorts or paired comparisons would comply with the Pay Equity Act, it is advisable to do five because of the difficulty in evaluating mental effort and physical effort simultaneously. Evaluating only physical effort is likely to be gender biased. Consequently the “effort” criterion should be divided into two.

The *classification* method also requires adaptation to meet pay equity needs. Just as specific jobs tend to be associated with one gender or the other, so do job families. The clerical job family is dominated by females, while the managerial job family is dominated by males. The practice of avoiding comparisons of jobs in different job families has been one of the reasons for pay inequities.

To avoid this problem, prepare grade descriptions rather than classification descriptions. Grade descriptions are more general. For example, a class description for clerical jobs would include the skill of typing.

Class I might require typing 40 words per minute while Class II would require typing 60 words per minute. Such precise descriptions do not allow you to incorporate equally skilled manual jobs that entail different tasks. But a grade description defines skill more generally. For example,

- Grade I** Requires skills generally learned in one to three months, either on or off the job. For example typing, driving a car.
- Grade II** Requires skills generally learned in three to six months, either on or off the job. For example word processing, driving a bus or truck.

With these broader definitions of the criteria, it is possible to assess jobs from different job families within the same grade description system. Gender neutrality can be built into the system through the equivalencies embedded in the grade descriptions. By defining typing and driving a car as requiring the same amount of skill, one focuses on the compatibility or equivalency of skills – regardless of the gender of those people who traditionally engage in the skill. This built-in gender neutrality can also apply to the other three criteria: effort, responsibility and working conditions.

If a classification system has been based on two separate job families, for example, plant jobs and clerical jobs where the former is traditionally male and the latter is traditionally female dominant, it is possible, but less desirable, to equate the two separately developed job hierarchies that result. Because the job families are gender specific there is no reason to worry about gender bias within the gender-specific job hierarchy; for example, clerk, clerk typist, senior clerk and senior clerk typist. Pay equity is achieved by equating the two job hierarchies on a gender-neutral basis.

Assume, for example, that the following two job hierarchies are found in the same organization.

Female job family	Male job family
Nursing Assistant	Caretaker
Laboratory Technologist	Stationary Engineer
Nurse	Maintenance Worker

By comparing some of the jobs, it may be possible to align and integrate the two job hierarchies. Thus:

- Grade I** Caretaker
- Grade II** Nursing Assistant
Stationary Engineer
- Grade III** Laboratory Technologist
Maintenance Worker
- Grade IV** Nurse

If there were a large number of jobs in each hierarchy it would be more efficient to mesh two (or more) hierarchies instead of re-evaluating all the jobs in each hierarchy.

But this process will not work if the job families are mixed, rather than predominantly female or male. Within a mixed job family one cannot assume that there is no gender bias in the hierarchy within the job family. For example, one can assume that wage differentials *between* clerical jobs which are all female dominated are not influenced by gender bias. The same can be said for the pay relationships *between* plant jobs which are male dominated. However, this assumption cannot be made about a hierarchy of service jobs some of which are female and some of which are male dominated.

Point factor method

There are a number of concerns about gender bias in point factor systems. First, the risk of subfactor overlap is higher because this method uses more subfactors. If the redundant subfactors are more likely to be found in either (but not both) men's or women's jobs, then gender bias may exist.

It is very important to make clear, precise distinctions between levels of subfactors. The more room for ambiguity, the more likely it is for bias to occur. Further, the description of each level must apply equally to the content found in the female and male jobs under evaluation. When examples of equipment appear, for instance, make sure that equipment used in both men's and women's jobs is listed.

It is typical to group jobs based on a range or spread of points; for example, 100-125. (The appropriate range of points depends on the total number of points and whether the jobs are broadly or narrowly defined.)

Point ranges should be consistent, and they should be checked to ensure that they do not routinely work against jobs of one gender versus the other. For example, is the point cut-off always placing female (or male) jobs at the top of lower groupings? This could indicate gender bias in the evaluation of jobs and not necessarily how the point ranges have been established.

Factor comparison method

The traditional method of doing factor comparisons is unacceptable for pay equity purposes, because it traditionally incorporates current salaries. It is possible to adapt the factor comparison method, however. But since this method is the most complex and least common, it is best to avoid using it unless it is already in place.

Market-pricing method

Market-pricing as a means of setting compensation for all jobs in an organization is totally unacceptable for pay equity purposes.

If there is any undervaluing of women's work, it is reflected in current salaries.

Doing salary surveys to price male jobs evaluated under a gender-neutral job comparison system, however, is acceptable as long as all other aspects of the Pay Equity Act are met.

Policy-capturing method

New York State developed a job comparison method to assess salaries for women's jobs. Since this method does not involve the evaluation of job information by individuals, it differs from traditional job evaluation methods. This job comparison method is similar to the policy-capturing alternative for determining factor weightings, (see page 39) in this chapter. It also involves regression analysis. Thus, it is most appropriate for organizations that have access to statistical analysis and computerized systems. This method is sometimes referred to as SUNY (for State University of New York where it was developed).

In this method, jobs are not described and then evaluated. Instead, a detailed, closed-ended questionnaire is administered to obtain information about the jobs. The compensable factors are reflected in the questionnaire. A statistical procedure then relates the quantifiable job information from the questionnaire to the job salaries. Included in the regression equation is a factor "per cent female". This allows the identification of gender bias. Once identified, any influence of gender on salaries can be removed.

The questionnaire is the most critical step in this method. All the concerns about gender bias in the selection and definition of criteria are relevant here because these criteria are incorporated into the questionnaire. In the New York State questionnaire, for example, there are three questions on budget responsibility and three on working with troubled clients/customers.

The questionnaire must be complete enough to describe accurately all the jobs under evaluation. Once the questionnaire is developed, it cannot be used on jobs for which it was not designed as the questions will not take some aspects of these jobs into account. If an organization wants to use a questionnaire developed by another organization, it should review it to ensure its relevance. This would not be necessary if both organizations have identical jobs and values the compensable factors in the same way.

Gender Bias in Selecting Compensable Factors

The *criteria* of skill, effort, responsibility and working conditions by which to compare jobs are the basis of the Pay Equity Act job comparisons.

But at the heart of any job evaluation system are the compensable factors – or *subcriteria* on which jobs are evaluated. As shown in the list on pages 27-28 in the previous chapter, there is a wide range of possible subcriteria. Only a limited number is used by any job evaluation system. Some sub-criteria are often associated with female jobs, while others are usually found in male jobs. The chart on the following page adapted from research conducted in the United Kingdom, demonstrates this point.

Job evaluation factors which may favour male or female jobs*

FAVOURS MALE JOBS		NEUTRAL	FAVOURS FEMALE JOBS	
HIGHLY	MODERATELY		MODERATELY	HIGHLY
Skill				
Experience	Breadth of know-how Depth of know-how Differentiating sounds Education Knowledge Knowledge of machinery, tools and materials	Communication Co-ordination Complexity of job Differentiating smells Differentiating tastes Ingenuity Initiative Judgement Level of skill Originality Training period Verbal comprehension Verbal expression	Accuracy Information ordering Scanning and attention to detail	Dexterity Typing and keyboarding skills
Effort				
	Numerical calculations Physical effort Physical skills Problem solving	Co-operation Decision making Fatigue Mental effort Planning Stamina Versatility	Concentration	
Responsibility				
	Responsibility for cash or assets Responsibility for equipment Responsibility for products Responsibility for standards	Accountability Confidential data/information Effect of decisions Responsibility Responsibility for materials Safety of others Supervision of subordinates	Contacts: Internal, external Human relations responsibility Public relations responsibility	Caring
Working conditions				
Heavy lifting Physical hazards Spatial ability Unpleasant working conditions			Monotony	

Adapted from research conducted in the United Kingdom

Does this mean that if a job comparison system uses any subfactors favouring women's or men's jobs, they are automatically biased? No. But a number of subfactors favouring one gender or the other should be a red flag. The criteria used must be justifiable. For example, "caring" is an appropriate criterion for assessing jobs in a hospital, not a foundry. As noted in the section entitled *Collecting and Recording Job Information*, traditional job analysis and job evaluation systems consistently have omitted sub-criteria relevant to women's jobs.

Defining criteria introduces a minefield of potential gender bias. Since there is no formula to detect gender bias in compensable factors, some examples of potential bias in each of the four primary criteria – skill, effort, responsibility and working conditions – are considered below.

Skill

Innate abilities:

U.S. experts in job analysis rated a dog-pound attendant as a more valuable job than a childcare worker. Since this did not make sense intuitively, it was examined further. It was discovered that the job of dog-pound attendant was rated high on skill, while the job of childcare worker was not. The job analysis experts had assumed that all women are innately skilled at working with children.

Use of work aids:

Often skill is assessed in terms of the tools used. Women's jobs can be undervalued in two ways because of this approach. Some equipment found in women's jobs may not be perceived as a tool, (e.g., typewriters, fax machines, even sophisticated telephones). Alternatively, women may not work with tools but their jobs may require a great deal of dexterity that goes undetected.

Forgotten criteria:

Skills such as handling complaints and dealing with people who need special care – the sick, the elderly, children – are often not considered.

Effort

Considering physical but not mental effort:

Effort is usually considered to be mental and physical effort. Any job comparison system which only considered physical effort would be suspect. One supermarket, for instance, paid "bag boys" more than "check-out girls" because the former were given credit for the physical effort, while the cashiers were not given credit for the mental effort required in their jobs.

Considering full-body movement versus repeated, confined use of only a few muscles, or fine motor activity:

Under physical effort it is typical to give credit only to jobs which require lifting of heavy objects. Many women's jobs involve continuous fine motor effort (e.g., typing or sewing). Studies show that if fatigue is measured as oxygen loss from the muscles, it is more fatiguing to do constant fine motor activity than it is to lift heavy objects periodically.

Lifting of animate "objects":

Even if the lifting of heavy objects is the measure of physical effort used, many women's jobs are not given credit for the lifting involved. Childcare workers, for instance, have to lift children; nurses and nursing assistants lift patients.

Responsibility

Including responsibility for property and equipment, but not for people:

It is not that responsibility for property and equipment is unimportant, but that responsibility for people – except for subordinates – is often overlooked. Interactions with clients, customers, patients and students are vital to many organizations in order to achieve their objectives. Jobs in these organizations thus should be evaluated on these criteria.

Valuing negotiating, but not counselling and conciliation:

The kinds of interaction more typically found in traditional men's jobs (e.g., negotiating) are often valued more than those found in traditional female jobs (e.g., nurturing). Yet these "female" responsibilities may be at least as important to the organization's success.

Working conditions

From the chart showing the sub-criteria that favour women's and men's jobs, you can see that most of the factors under working conditions favour men's jobs. It is assumed that men work in rough, tough jobs – true for lumberjacks but not for accountants.

Visible versus invisible dirt:

From childhood, it is acceptable for boys to get dirty when they play and it is expected that girls will be neat and tidy. This expectation has led to working condition factors that give some men's jobs credit for working with grease and grime, but assume that women's jobs will not involve dirt. When one thinks of “dirty” jobs, car mechanics and garbage collectors come to mind. In these jobs, the dirt is highly visible. Many women's jobs, however – for example, nurse and maid – also involve dirt, but it is invisible; their jobs require making the job site clean and sterile. So cleaning toilets and disposing of human waste go unrecognized.

Physical danger versus stress:

Compensating jobs that involve physical danger is appropriate. But the physical hazards of stress are often overlooked. Stress tends to be more complex than physical danger. A certain amount of stress is positive, but too much is harmful. While it is true that some people enjoy stressful situations, others do not. This, however, is also true of physical danger. One kind of stress often found in women's jobs is lack of control over their working environment. While secretaries and managers both face the stress of pressure and deadlines, one has more power than the other.

Assuming outside work is more onerous than inside work:

There are different degrees of unpleasantness associated with working outside – always working in pleasant weather (e.g. gardeners), always working in unpleasant weather (e.g. snow removal operators), and working in both (e.g. linemen/women). There are also gradations in working inside. All office environments are not the same, and this should be reflected in the compensable factors.

So far, we have examined how gender bias can affect the definitions of skill, effort, responsibility and working conditions. But remember, in identifying and removing gender bias, sometimes it is not a question of looking at what is there – but of becoming aware of what is missing. This is one of the biggest challenges in eliminating gender discrimination.

Often men's and women's jobs are assessed under different sets of criteria. For instance, some criteria used when evaluating men's jobs are ignored when assessing women's jobs. Physical effort is an example. Physical effort is usually assumed to involve strength. Since the stereotype is that men are strong and women are weak, most women's jobs are not evaluated in terms of strength.

Further, there is a concern that when using the point method, the range of levels (degrees) of a sub-factor does not sufficiently reflect the range of tasks and duties found in both men's and women's jobs.

In devising levels of subfactors, job evaluation experts have traditionally assumed that the levels are linear – that is, that adding more of a particular characteristic always meant that the job was more important and should therefore be paid more. However, there are a number of factors in which there may be an optimum amount, and where either too much *or* too little should be paid at a higher level. For example, jobs with almost no or with excessive physical activity are probably worth more than jobs with a moderate amount.

Under working conditions, for example, a traditional job evaluation system might look like this:

Level	Description
(1)	Sitting all day
(2)	Standing all day
(3)	Walking on level surfaces
(4)	Walking on unlevel surfaces, kneeling, stooping, etc.

This formula does not take into account that it is less tiring to do a combination of activities. So sitting all day may be more, not less, difficult and therefore should be valued more. Consider the strain of sitting on an airplane for eight consecutive hours. The definitions below, then, may be more appropriate:

Level	Description
(1)	Sitting and walking (A combination provides flexibility)
(2)	Walking on level surfaces (Moving is easier than being static)
(3)	Sitting all day or standing all day (Inability to change position causes cramps, muscle problems. Both cause back strain)
(4)	Walking on unlevel surfaces, kneeling, stooping, etc. (Denotes some strain on muscles and limbs, even though it is varied)

It may be more appropriate for the subfactors to reflect that jobs containing too much or too little of the ingredient in question may be valued differently than jobs containing a moderate or balanced amount – for example, too much or too little stress; too much or too little responsibility.

Gender Bias in Weighting Compensable Factors

As noted in the previous section – *Understanding Job Evaluation* – there are two ways of weighting compensable factors. These are *a priori* and policy-capturing.

Employers often use different sets of weights for different job families. This is a problem for pay equity purposes, as it is difficult to identify comparable jobs if different weights have been used.

A priori weighting method:

When using this method, double-check the rationale behind weightings. If the criteria with the highest

weights are consistently associated with male job classes, while the criteria with the lowest weightings are associated with female job classes, there is gender bias at work.

Policy-capturing method:

This method relies on current salaries and so, in terms of pay equity, it cannot be used to establish the weightings for women's jobs. But it is possible to adapt it. The policy-capturing weighting method can be used in a gender-neutral manner by developing weightings for male job classes and applying these same weightings to female job classes to determine the appropriate salaries. This approach is based on the assumption that there is no bias in the relationship between salary and job evaluation results for male jobs, while there is for female jobs.

Even if the same criteria are used and defined identically, if the weightings of the criteria are different, then the job comparison system is different. Some of the options for making comparisons across different job comparison systems are described later.

Gender Bias in Benchmark Jobs

While the use of benchmark jobs (described in the previous chapter) is not very relevant to the achievement of pay equity, it is often a critical aspect of ongoing job evaluation systems.

One should be aware of whether the jobs selected as benchmark are predominantly female or male. Benchmark jobs should be representative of all the jobs in the organization. Therefore, the proportion of benchmark jobs that are predominantly female or male should reflect the organization's current composition.

It is important to ensure that pay equity, once achieved, is maintained. Including some female job classes that received pay equity adjustments will provide a means of monitoring the wage hierarchy developed through the pay equity process.

Actually Evaluating Jobs

It is possible for a gender-neutral comparison system to be used in a gender biased manner. If those evaluating the jobs consider characteristics of the employees, rather than job content alone, gender bias can creep in. While it is inappropriate even in traditional job evaluation, evaluators sometimes still take into account an employee's monetary needs instead of assessing the job. Observations such as "Sally doesn't need the money, she only works to get out of the house," and "Helen just had a baby and is cutting back to a part-time schedule" are totally irrelevant in determining the value of the jobs they hold.

One way to capitalize on the diversity of the evaluation committee is for each evaluator to make her or his evaluations individually and then the group can discuss them. It is important that every person be allowed to participate. When asking committee members to share their evaluations, begin with a different person each time.

The job information, not the evaluators' perceptions of the jobs, is being evaluated. This is one reason why it is so important that the job information be complete, accurate and free of gender bias. Evaluators should obtain additional job information if they are unclear about any part of a job.

Job titles can be deceiving. It is the job information that describes the job. One way to avoid gender bias is to omit job titles from the job information. In fact, it is best if evaluators – regardless of the method being used – only deal with information related to one criterion at a time. That is, it is best to rate *all* jobs on *one* criterion, e.g. skill. Then assess *all* jobs on the next criterion, e.g. effort, and so on. This simultaneously facilitates evaluation and minimizes gender bias. It allows evaluators to concentrate on a single criterion; to discuss it among themselves thoroughly; and to ensure that they are all using it in a similar manner. Then they can evaluate all jobs on this one criterion. It is easier to see the similarities in the value of the jobs. Further, by dismantling the job's components, it is more likely that the committee will be able to avoid the gender associations we all tend to make when we think of a job.

Whether or not it is possible to break jobs up, it is best to avoid considering the jobs in the same order. On one criterion, jobs could be evaluated in alphabetical order. Then the job descriptions could be "shuffled" so that on the next criterion the job information is in a different order; then shuffled again before they are evaluated on the third criterion, and so on. When evaluating anything, there is a possible "order effect." In job interviews, for instance, an acceptable candidate who follows a mediocre one is likely to be evaluated higher because of the contrast between them.

Comparing Jobs Evaluated Under Different Systems

The requirement for different pay equity plans for union and non-union jobs and the option of different plans within different geographic establishments can result in more than one job comparison system being used within a single organization. This may be due to different decisions in negotiations involving different unions.

However, to achieve pay equity it may be necessary to make comparisons across different comparison systems. Employers and unions should keep this possibility in mind when designing or purchasing a job comparison system.

In some cases, it may be quite obvious that comparisons will have to be made between female and male jobs that are routinely in different bargaining units, or traditionally in different wage-determination units. For example, all the nurses in a provincial hospital are found in a single bargaining unit – the Ontario Nursing Association. Since this bargaining unit has no male job classes, the only possible male comparator job classes will be in another bargaining unit, or among non-bargaining-unit job classes. Any job comparison system considered for nurses should be able to evaluate adequately not only these job classes, but likely male job comparator classes as well.

In other cases it may not be obvious that the appropriate male comparator job class is in another pay equity plan. It might only be discovered after all the evaluations have been completed that there is no male comparator job class for one or more female job classes using the same gender-neutral comparison system. In these cases, some mechanism is needed to identify a male comparator job class that was evaluated on another system, or that was not evaluated at all.

For example, male job classes in a pay equity plan that has no female job classes may not have been evaluated. This is because the pay equity plan would have listed all the male job classes and indicated that nothing further needed to be done for this plan because no female job classes existed. However, after all job classes in other pay equity plans have been evaluated, it may be discovered that these male job classes are potential comparators for one or more female job classes in another pay equity plan.

It may be possible to evaluate these male job classes within the same gender-neutral comparison system used to evaluate the female job classes. However, this is only possible if the comparison system is *not job specific*. If the comparison system was designed to be relevant only to certain kinds of jobs, e.g. clerical, it will not be feasible for it to evaluate other kinds of jobs, e.g. maintenance. The more generic the job comparison systems, the better it is able to evaluate jobs that initially were not evaluated on the same system.

If it is not feasible to evaluate the male jobs on the same comparison system used for the female jobs, other options are available. The alternatives that follow are also relevant if a female job class has been evaluated on a comparison system different from the one used for a potential male comparator job class.

Use a third comparison system to evaluate any female job class and potential male comparator job classes.

A comparison system that was not used initially to evaluate either the female job class or the male job class could be used to evaluate these job classes jointly. This system must obviously be generic (i.e. not job specific) enough to assess job classes that are likely matches.

This option may be quite costly and time-consuming, particularly if only a few job classes need to be evaluated. This approach may be most appropriate when an organization wants to continue using existing systems (after they have been adapted to ensure gender neutrality).

Use a third comparison system "link" between the two (or more) existing systems, based on evaluating three to five job classes in each pay equity plan.

If there are a number of male job classes evaluated under one system that are likely comparators for a number of female job classes evaluated under another system, a third system could "link" the two systems. The third system would provide information, for example, such as: job classes in grade I are equivalent to 325 to 375 points; or 400 points on system A is equivalent to 525 points on system B.

By using the third system to evaluate three to five job classes under each of the different comparison systems, you can compare all the job classes under each system with all those under the other comparison system. Like the first alternative, this option is most appropriate for an organization that wants to use their existing system(s) for addressing pay equity.

Adapt one (or both) comparison systems to enable the assessment of female and male job classes currently evaluated under different systems.

Rather than incorporating a third system, it may be possible to adapt one or both of the existing systems so that they can adequately evaluate job classes evaluated under another system. You could ensure, for example, that all the subfactors found in both systems are included. If an item is considered important enough to include in evaluating one set of jobs, the other set of jobs should be evaluated on the same item.

Sometimes subfactors are defined in ways that are only relevant to certain kinds of jobs. For example, a list of equipment such as computers, word processors, typewriters, photocopiers and fax machines is appropriate for clerical jobs. But this list is irrelevant for jobs such as cleaner, driver or carpenter. It is possible, however, to add examples of equipment relevant for other types of jobs that will be equivalent to the equipment used in clerical jobs.

Similarly, you can write equivalent statements about working conditions to cover both inside and outside work. Working outside in pleasant weather, as gardeners do, may be equivalent to working inside in well-lit, well-ventilated, spacious offices; working outside in sometimes inclement weather may be equivalent to working inside in cramped, stuffy offices.

Combine the two (or more) comparison systems.

Some comparison systems can be easily combined with others. Two point systems, for example, probably could be combined and the points re-established. Two grade systems might also be combined. But it would be impossible to combine a point system and a grade system, or even to combine some point systems with each other.

Use each comparison system to assess the job classes evaluated on the other system.

This approach may work in some cases and it would save time and money in developing or purchasing a third comparison system. However, evaluating jobs on a system that is unable to assess adequately the kind of work performed may not provide very useful information.

From this option you would learn how jobs would be evaluated on the criteria and weightings felt to be important to other jobs. For example, assume one system was used for clerical jobs while the second assessed manual jobs. It is likely that the clerical job evaluation system would have a "public contact." Manual jobs probably would not rate highly on this. Conversely, the manual job evaluation system might give more weight to physical effort, while clerical jobs might not score very high on this point.

Thus if the two comparison systems use different subfactors and/or weightings, it is likely that the job classes that are not traditionally evaluated on a particular system will be evaluated lower. By using two systems to evaluate the other jobs, it is possible to see the degree to which each system is job-specific.

It is not clear, however, how to combine the information from these two evaluations for pay equity purposes.

Guidelines on Hiring Consultants

In some situations, there will be a desire to hire consultants to help with pay equity job comparisons. Some consulting firms and unions have developed job evaluation systems that can be purchased. You can choose between purchasing one of these ready-made job comparison systems, or designing your own. Either option could involve a consultant.

The chart below compares the advantages and disadvantages of designing and purchasing a job comparison system. Because most systems one can purchase are point systems, the table below compares the design of or purchase of a point system. Design of a ranking system, for instance, would be much less time consuming than a point system.

	Design	Purchase
Time	Slower	Quicker
Cost	Variable	
In-house compensation expertise needed	More	Less
Potential to reflect unique aspects of organization	More likely	Possible

Time

Purchasing a ready-made system almost always will be faster than designing your own. But designing a ranking system can take considerably less time than designing a point-factor system. It is interesting to note that consulting firms have usually developed systems that involve more details than the ranking or classification methods. They are marketing a product that is the most difficult for an organization to develop on its own.

Cost

It is impossible to determine the option that will cost more – purchasing or designing one's own – until you define your specific situation. For example, which method do you want to use? How many jobs are involved? Are you adapting a currently used system or purchasing/designing a brand new one?

Compensation expertise

While those in the organization must understand the concepts of pay equity and gender-neutral job comparison, essentially the consultant provides the professional expertise. One issue to consider is whether you need ongoing involvement by the consultant, or one-time-only help.

Potential to reflect unique aspects of the organization

This is the primary reason for designing one's own job comparison system. With ready-made systems, one has to make a selection from a number of alternatives and find the one with the "best fit."

Whether you purchase a system or design your own, it is important to remember that the *Pay Equity Commission will not be endorsing* any job comparison systems. This is because no job comparison system on its own is a guarantee of gender neutrality. It represents only one element in the process. As well, the job information and the actual evaluation of jobs must be free of gender bias.

In addition, even if a consultant is used, the organization (and bargaining agent, if applicable) remains responsible for achieving pay equity.

On the pages that follow are some questions you might use in selecting a consultant who will meet your needs.

Questions to ask if you are hiring a consultant

1. Does the consulting firm understand and support pay equity? This is usually obvious from reading their material and talking with them.
2. Is their proposal clear and well written, or is it confused and highly technical? If you cannot understand the proposal, it is unlikely you will be able to communicate with the consultant during the project and you may receive a final report that is incomprehensible. Confusing and overly technical writing can be a mask for incompetence.
3. Check the references carefully. Just because a consultant lists a completed project does not mean it was a good job. If the firm has done pay equity studies for other clients, check these out with several people. The person listed as a contact may be the only person who thought the consultant was good, or the consultant may have worked well with management but antagonized the union. Perhaps the consultant did a good job but was over budget or behind schedule. Check with both the employer and the union or task force members involved with the study.
4. Check out the people who will be working on your project. If your reference check reveals that the firm was good, but that the personnel assigned were incompetent or difficult to work with, make sure the same people are not assigned to your study. You should also find out whether the firm plans to subcontract part of the work. They will be able to exercise less control over subcontractors than over their own employees.
5. Try to determine whether the consultant will be able to devote enough attention to the project to do a careful job in a reasonable amount of time. Find out how many other projects the firm currently has underway. Check with these clients to find out if the consultant is giving their projects proper attention.
6. What experience has the consultant had in working with unions? Can the consultant work well with both union and management personnel?

Questions to ask about a ready-made job evaluation system

1. Find out what (if any) changes were made to that job evaluation system to accommodate the pay equity legislation.
2. Ask if the methodology is flexible (i.e., if it can be custom-tailored to your organization) or pre-packaged. Given the importance of participation in the evaluation process, a consultant who is willing to work with you and make modifications to the system may be desirable. Check with references to ensure that the consultant follows through on such promises.
3. Are the criteria of skill, effort, responsibility and working conditions included? If the system seems superficial and does not include important elements that you want included, or if it appears that it may contain gender bias, there are probably better systems available. Does the system adequately cover all jobs likely to be compared?
4. Ask about the history of the job evaluation system. When was it developed? For what kind of jobs? Where (industries, job families) has it been most often used?
5. Do not choose a consultant or package based on the price. The wrong methodology, factors or application may cost much more in the long run. Choose the system that best suits your company culture, size, complexity and needs.
6. Will the consultant agree to provide technical information and explanation about their system, if needed, to back up the organization's pay equity plan?

Ensuring Future Gender Neutrality

Once pay equity is achieved, the Pay Equity Act requires that it be maintained. Maintaining pay equity has different implications, depending both on the choices made in achieving it and on the organization's future compensation system. One of the basic indicators is the choice of two options available to address pay equity. These two options are:

- ▶ the audit approach – using a job comparison system for pay equity purposes only;
- ▶ the ongoing approach – using a job comparison system as part of the organization's compensation process.

A pay equity audit requires that normal job evaluation be suspended, while another procedure is used for the purpose of achieving pay equity. This was the approach taken by the Province of Manitoba for its civil service jobs. The province ordinarily uses a grade description system. For pay equity purposes, a point factor system was used with a joint union-management committee. Inequities were identified and adjustments made. After naming the undervalued female jobs in the appropriate grade, the province plans to continue using its grade description system.

Use of such an audit approach is only feasible in some situations. It is sometimes impossible to mesh results of one job comparison system (the audit) with another (one normally used). Those involved in the pay equity process need to consider both the immediate need to achieve pay equity and the long-term requirement to maintain it.

Conclusion

Eliminating gender discrimination in pay practices is not a one-time task. It is an ongoing, modern strategy for both the present and the future.

Now, pay equity provides organizations with an opportunity to examine their compensation systems and ensure that they are fulfilling the intended objective to give women equal pay for work of equal value. Because ultimately, pay equity is a question of fairness.

Pay Equity Glossary

Ability to Pay: The ability of an organization to remain profitable while meeting a certain wage demand from its workers.

Accrual of Benefits (Pension Plans): Defined benefit plans – the process of accumulating pension credits for years of credited service, expressed as an annual benefit to begin payment at normal retirement age.

Across the Board Increases: An identical pay increase (in cents or as a percentage) given to every employee in a specific bargaining unit, or across the entire company. Sometimes known as a general increase, or a general economic increase.

Affirmative Action: Positive actions and initiatives specifically geared towards diversifying the occupational distribution of women and other target groups (e.g. visible minorities, native persons, and the disabled) through hire/promotion targets, training programs, etc.

Alternation Ranking: A job evaluation method that involves ordering the job descriptions at each extreme. All jobs are considered. Agreement is reached on which is the most valuable, then the least valuable. Evaluators alternate between the next most valued and next least valued and so on until all the jobs have been ordered.

Arbitrary: Making decisions in a random or capricious manner. “Arbitrary” should not be confused with arbitration.

Arbitration: A procedure in which a third party, often appointed by the government, studies the bargaining situation, listens to both parties, gathers information, and then reaches a decision that usually is binding on the parties.

Average Earned Rate: An hourly rate of pay arrived at by dividing hours worked into the equivalent earnings paid for a calendar quarter for use in the next quarter. The average earned rate excludes overtime, bonuses and other payments.

Average Hourly Earnings: Hourly pay determined by dividing hours worked per pay period into the total wages paid for that period.

Bargaining Agent: A person certified by a government labour agency (e.g. Ontario Labour Relations Board) to represent the employees in an appropriate bargaining unit and to be the exclusive bargaining agent for those employees in the process of collective bargaining.

Bargaining Unit: The group of employees that a union is certified to represent by a labour relations board for the purposes of collective bargaining.

Base Wage Rate: The money rate or salary paid for a job performed. It does not include shift differentials, benefits, overtime, incentive premiums, or any other elements of compensation other than the base hourly rate. The base wage rate may be calculated on an hourly, weekly or annual basis.

Benchmark: A job, or group of jobs, used for making pay comparisons, either within the organization, or to comparable jobs outside the organization.

Bonus Earnings (or Bonus): Any direct additional lump-sum cash payment made on top of a base salary for either individuals or groups.

Budget: A definite financial plan for the allocation of money to pay for wages and financial benefits for a covered group of employees over some specified period.

Cafeteria (Flexible) Benefits: A benefit plan in which employees have a choice as to the benefits they receive within some dollar limit.

Canada Labour Code: Legislation governing federally-represented employers and employees.

Canada Pension Plan (CPP): A mandatory, contributing pension plan applicable to all self-employed individuals and employees in Canada, except those who work for the federal government.

Canadian Charter of Rights and Freedoms: The Charter occupies a central place in the Canadian Constitution. The object of the Charter is to protect the citizen against the state, and to protect minorities.

Section 1 makes all Charter rights subject to reasonable limits imposed by government by laws which can be shown to be justified in a free and democratic society.

Charter section 15 – the sections in our constitution which guarantee equality before and under the law and equal benefit of the law to everyone without discrimination on grounds such as race, national or ethnic origin, colour, religion, sex, age or mental or physical disability.

Section 15 subsection 2 indicates that programs designed to ameliorate the conditions of disadvantaged groups (i.e. affirmative action programs) are allowed by the Charter.

Section 28 guarantees the rights in the Charter equally to men and women.

Canadian Classification and Dictionary of Occupations: A publication of the federal government providing detailed definitions for all jobs in Canada.

Card Sort: A means of ranking jobs. First, the job which ranks highest on a criteria is given an “1”, then the job which ranks the lowest is given the lowest ranking. The job which ranks second highest is given a “2”, and the job which ranks second lowest is given the second lowest ranking. This process is continued until all jobs have been ranked.

Centralized Bargaining: A type of bargaining that aims to reduce the degree of fragmentation in the collective bargaining process and the potential conflict that can result by combining employers, on the one hand, and/or unions on the other, to form negotiating coalitions. This reduces the potential for sequential work stoppages in the same industry/company as various contracts terminate.

Charter Groups: The groups that an employment equity program is intended to help, usually members of society who have been traditionally disadvantaged because of their sex, race, religion, etc. Included are women, visible minorities, the disabled, native persons. Also known as Target Groups.

Classification (Job Classification): A hierarchical structure of jobs, usually arranged into classes or pay grades according to some form of job evaluation.

Classification Method of Job Evaluation: A method which compares jobs on a whole job basis. Pre-defined class descriptions are established for a series of job classes and a job is placed in whichever classification best describes it.

Collective Agreement: An agreement in writing between an employer and the union representing her/his employees which contains provisions respecting conditions of employment, rates of pay, hours of work, and the rights and obligations of the parties to the agreement. Ordinarily the agreement is for a definite period, such as one, two, or three years, usually not less than twelve months. Under some conditions, amendments are made to the agreements by mutual consent during the term of the agreement in order to deal with special conditions.

Collective Bargaining: Method of determining wages, hours and other conditions of employment through direct negotiations between the union and the employer. The result of collective bargaining is normally a written contract which covers all employees in the bargaining unit, both union members and non-members, for a specified period of time. More recently, the term's definition has been broadened to include the day-to-day activities involved in giving effect to or carrying out the terms of a collective agreement. *Bargaining in good faith* refers to the requirement that the two parties meet and confer at reasonable times with minds open to persuasion and a view to reaching agreement on new contract terms. Good faith bargaining does not imply that either party is required to reach agreement on any proposal.

COLA (Cost of Living Adjustment): An across-the-board wage and salary increase or supplement payment designed to help bring pay in line with increases in the cost of living. COLA'S are sometimes included in union contracts, and are generally tied to increases in the Consumer Price Index (C.P.I.).

Commission: A form of compensation for the sale of products or services, usually an amount calculated as a percentage of the sale.

Compa-ratio: The measure of the average salary for a given pay grade relative to the midpoint of that pay grade.

Comparable Factors: Factors or common characteristics of jobs employed to compare the relative value of different jobs.

Compensation: Refers to all payments and benefits paid or provided for the benefit of a person who performs functions that entitle the person to be paid a fixed or ascertainable amount.

Compensable Factor: Any factor used to provide a basis for judging job value in a job evaluation scheme. The most commonly employed compensable factors are skill, effort, responsibility and working conditions.

Conciliation and Mediation: A process that attempts to resolve labour disputes by compromise or voluntary agreement. By contrast with arbitration, the mediator or conciliator does not bring in a binding award, and the parties are free to accept or reject the recommendation. The conciliator is often a government official whose report contains recommendations and is made public. Conciliation is a prerequisite to legal strike/lock-out action. The mediator is usually a private individual appointed as a last resort after conciliation has failed to prevent or to end a strike.

Contract Compliance: A program like that instituted by, for example, the federal government, the City of Toronto, whereby any large firm bidding on a government contract must agree to introduce and implement employment equity in their workplaces.

Co-operative Wage Study (CWS): A study undertaken by the United Steelworkers of America (USWA) and participating steel companies to design an industry-wide point job evaluation plan for both clerical and technical personnel.

Discrimination: In the workplace, unequal treatment of persons, whether in hiring, promoting, or discharging, on the basis of gender, age, marital status, race, creed, and other factors not related to direct job performance.

Downgrading: The movement of a job to a lower level in a job evaluation system or to a lower pay grade.

Earnings: Total wages or compensation received by an employee for time worked or service rendered (includes all compensation, overtime, premium pay, bonuses, etc.)

Employment Equity: A comprehensive range of initiatives designed to improve the economic status of target groups and support their participation in the workplace by removing barriers to discrimination. Included are: initiatives to diversify the occupational distribution of the target groups, working conditions, benefits, child care, pay equity, etc.

Equal Pay for Equal Work: Under the *Employment Standards Act*, male and female employees must be equally compensated where substantially the same work is performed in the establishment. Jobs are substantially the same where skill, effort, responsibility, and working conditions are similar in each respect. In Ontario, equal pay for equal work legislation has been in effect since 1951.

Equal Pay for Work of Equal Value: This is a broader concept than equal pay for equal work. Specifically, male and female employees must be equally compensated where work undertaken within an establishment is of equal value. Jobs are deemed to be comparable where the same skill, effort, responsibility and working conditions apply. (These four factors may vary individually but when considered together, they mean similar job value.) The principle of equal pay for work of equal value was ratified by the Canadian government in 1972. It is often interpreted more broadly than the concept of pay equity in that it is not necessarily restricted to systemic discrimination in compensation based on gender.

External Equity: A fairness criterion that directs an employer to pay a wage that corresponds to rates prevailing in external markets for an employee's contribution.

Factor Weight: A weight indicating the relative importance of a compensable factor in a job evaluation system.

Factor Comparison: A job evaluation plan in which relative values for each of the number of factors of a job are established for the same factors on selected or key jobs.

Halo Error: A rating error that occurs when a rater tends to give an employee or a job similar ratings on all factors of whatever is being evaluated because of a general overall impression.

Hay System: A point factor system that evaluates jobs with respect to “know how”, “problem solving” and “accountability”. It is a system that has primarily been used for management and professional jobs.

Human Capital Theory: A theory of labour economics which proposes that the investment one is willing to make to enter an occupation is related to the economic returns one will earn over time in the form of compensation.

Indexing: An automatic adjustment of benefits in the course of payment to reflect changes in a consumer price, cost of living, or other index of inflation.

Indirect Compensation: Compensation beyond the current base salary or wage being paid. Indirect compensation includes many employee benefits such as paid vacation, insurance contributions, and so forth.

Industry-Wide Bargaining: A situation in which employers bargain as a group with the union at a regional, provincial or national level.

Internal Labour Market: A collection of processes that serve to regulate the allocation of employees among different jobs within a single organization.

Job: A collection of tasks that can be performed by one individual.

Job Analysis: The systematic process of determining and reporting the pertinent information regarding a job. This includes the identification of tasks/duties that comprise the job; the skill, effort and responsibility involved and the conditions under which the job is performed.

Job Analyst: A person trained in the process of job analysis who is assigned the responsibility of performing job analysis for a number of jobs or job classes.

Job Description: A description of the nature of a particular job, its relationship to other jobs, the working conditions, the degree of skill, effort, responsibility, etc., and the qualifications required to do the work involved.

Job Evaluation: Comparison of jobs by the use of systemic procedures to determine their relative worth within the organization.

Job Evaluation Committee: A committee set up to evaluate jobs within an organization, often having a membership representing all important constituencies within the organization. It may be charged with the responsibility of (1) selecting a job evaluation system, (2) carrying out or at least supervising the process of job evaluation, and (3) evaluating the success with which the job evaluation process has been conducted.

Job Evaluation Manual: A manual containing information on the job evaluation plan which is used as a “yardstick” to evaluate jobs.

Job Specification: This part of the job description that specifies the individual requirement or qualifications necessary on the part of an individual to perform the job.

Key Jobs: Samples of jobs that are used in wage surveys or in job evaluation. Key jobs are used for making benchmark comparisons with other jobs.

Labour: The application of one’s skills and effort in the production of goods and services.

Labour Demand (Curve): In economic price theory, the highest wage an employer or employers are willing to pay for a given level of employment or number of employees.

Labour Force: The number of people employed in the workforce plus those actively seeking work.

Labour Market: A concept used in labour economics to indicate the relation or interplay between the supply and demand for labour in a particular area.

Labour Supply (Curve): In economic price theory, the minimum wage necessary to attract a given number of employees or level of employment.

Lead or Lag Policy: A policy in which an organization must decide whether it will match, follow, or exceed the market in adjusting wage structures.

Linear Regression: A statistical technique that allows an analyst to build a model of a relationship between two variables. Linear regression assumes that the basic relationship between two variables is linear in nature.

Market Pricing: A wage and salary setting policy that sets the rates to be paid for a job to the organization's best estimate of the going wage rate in the external market place for that job. It is a process that defines a job's worth solely by the going rate in the labour market.

Market Rates: The employer's best estimate of the wage rates in the external labour market for a given job or occupation.

Multiple Regression: A statistical technique that uses several independent variables to predict or forecast future events.

Occupational Segregation: The clustering of men and women into traditional jobs and job ghettos. In Canada, for example, almost 70 percent of women in the labour force are working in the clerical, sales and services sectors of the economy. (Statistics Canada, 1981) In Ontario, for example, 41% of all women in Ontario's labour force work in 10 occupations. (Statistics Canada, 1986)

Open Shop: A shop in which union membership is not required as a condition of retaining employment.

Pay Equity: A policy or legislated provision requiring that work performed by women which is comparable in value to that performed by men in the same establishment should be paid the same. Jobs are evaluated according to the composite of skill, effort, responsibility and working conditions. Ontario's Pay Equity Act, which was proclaimed (became effective) January 1, 1988, requires that job comparisons be made between female-dominated and male-dominated job classes. Where the former are undervalued and underpaid, employers must effect adjustments in compensation accordingly. The legislation applies to employees who work in female job classes, and not to men or women who work in mixed or male job classes.

Pay Equity Audit: The use of a particular gender-neutral job system to value jobs for the purpose of identifying any pay inequities. From this audit, permanent changes to the salary structure will be made, however, the job comparison system will not be used on an on-going basis.

Pay Grade: One of the classes, levels or groups into which jobs of the same or similar value are grouped for compensation purposes. All jobs in a pay grade have the same pay range, including the same maximum, minimum, and midpoint.

Pay Level: The average of the array of rates paid by an employer.

Pay Plan: A schedule of pay rates or ranges and a list showing the assignment of each class in the classification plan to one of the rates or ranges.

Piece Rate: A direct performance payment based on production by a worker, or a payment made for each piece or other quantity unit of work produced by an employee.

Piece Work: Work paid for according to the number of pieces produced or operations completed.

Point Rating or Point-Factor Method: A job evaluation strategy that assigns point values to previously determined compensable factors and adds them in order to arrive at a total score used to determine wage levels. Once scaled degrees and weights are established for each factor, each job is measured against each compensable factor and a total score is calculated for each job. The total points assigned to a job determines the job's relative value and hence its location in the pay structure.

Policy-Capturing Method: This method uses a variety of statistical procedures to derive factors from data collected through quantitative job analysis from a sample of jobs that represents various factors that determine the salary level. It is sometimes referred to as the SUNY method because it is associated with the State University of New York at Albany.

Purchasing Power: In a cost-of-living agreement, an index that measures the power of a dollar to purchase goods.

Quantitative Job Evaluation: Job evaluation systems that involve the use of numerical indices and analyses in the estimation of job value, e.g. point factor job evaluation systems.

Ranking Method: A hierarchy or ladder of jobs constructed from job analysis to reflect the relative value of the jobs to the organization.

Real Wages: Wage earnings that are deflated by a price index such as the consumer price index.

Sexism: Discrimination based on gender.

Sexist Language: Language that excludes one sex or gives unequal treatment to women and men. For example, a document that referred to employers as “he” rather than “he or she” or referring “men and girls” as opposed to “men and women”. Use of parallel construction is important in avoiding sexist language.

Sex Role Stereotyping: The process whereby appropriate behaviour, attitudes and occupations are limited by gender.

Severance Pay: A lump-sum payment by an employer to a worker whose employment has been terminated.

Shift Differentials: Extra pay allowances given to employees who work on shifts other than a regular day shift.

Subjective: In the context of designing a job evaluation system and making evaluation: the making of decisions which are not objective. A subjective approach means that there is not a single correct answer that everyone will agree is right. Decisions, however, should be made in a systematic manner.

Systematic: Ensuring an order or particular set of steps to a process, for example, in the design of a job evaluation system or the actual evaluation of jobs.

SUNY: Refers to a job comparison system developed at the Centre for Women in Government, the State University of New York at Albany. It is defined as the Policy-Capturing Method in this glossary.

Take Home Pay: An employee's earnings less taxes and other deductions, also known as net earnings.

Union: An organization of employees formed for purposes that include the regulation of relations between its member-employees and their employers. It may be a local union or a provincial, a national, or an international union, or a certified council of trade unions. It may also be an independent employee association. In Ontario, in order to bargain on behalf of employees and enter into binding collective agreements, a trade union must prove it is a “union” within the meaning of the *Ontario Labour Relations Act*.

Unorganized Workers: Workers who do not belong to a union.

Upgrading: The advancement of a job to a higher classification.

Wage and Price Controls: Programme in which wages and prices are stabilized or controlled through government intervention and/or regulation.

Wage Differentials: Variations among wage rates due to a variety of factors – job content, location, skill, industry, company, sex, etc.

Wage Gap: The differences in annual average earnings between men and women in the labour force.

Wage Rate: The established or regular rate of pay for a given unit of time or effort on the job, exclusive of premium payments.

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